The Social Studies

Continuing

THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK

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The Social Studies

Continuing The Historical Outlook

ARTHUR C. BINING, *Editor*

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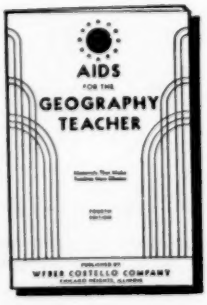
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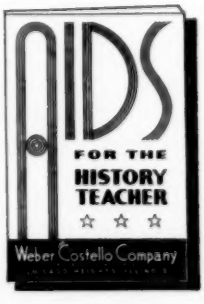


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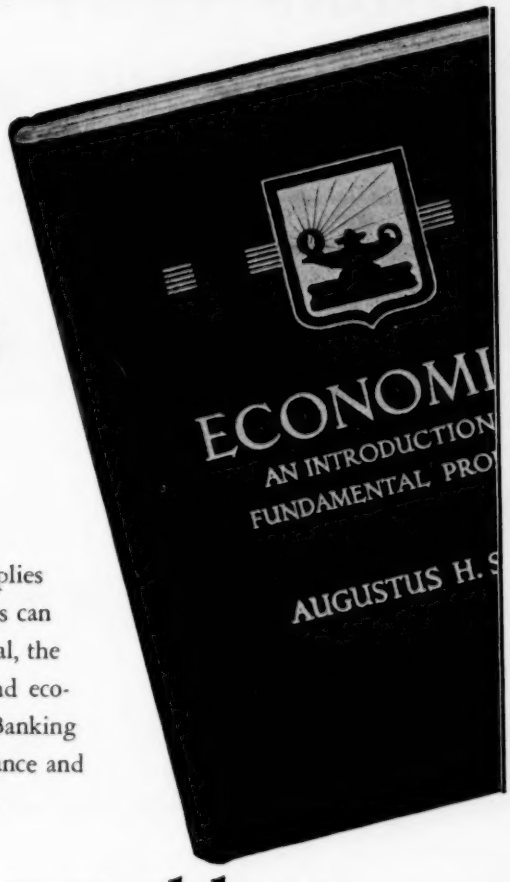
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The Social Studies

Continuing The Historical Outlook

VOLUME XXVIII, NUMBER 1 JANUARY, 1937

Announcement of Change in Editorial Management

ARTHUR C. BINING

University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, Pa.

With this issue of THE SOCIAL STUDIES, the editorial management changes. During the past three years, the American Historical Association, with the advice and coöperation of the National Council for the Social Studies, has borne the responsibility for directing its editorial policies. Beginning with the January, 1937 number the control and direction of the magazine reverts to its former management.

The magazine is now in its twenty-eighth year. It was organized by the late Dr. Albert E. McKinley and a number of his colleagues, who in 1909 seeing the need for such a periodical, launched *The History Teacher's Magazine*. In 1918, the journal became *The Historical Outlook*, and in 1933 its title was changed to THE SOCIAL STUDIES. The changes in name clearly reflect the growing emphasis on the non-historical social studies in the schools.

The present management desires to announce its plans and policies. THE SOCIAL STUDIES will be devoted to the interests of teachers of history, civics, political science, economics, problems of democracy, sociology, and the new geography *in the secondary schools*. It will present articles, not only of general interest and value to teachers, but also articles dealing with plans and methods of teaching the social studies, including experiments tried by secondary school teachers in different parts of the country. It will keep teachers in touch with new textbooks and other teaching aids, as well as with books that should be brought to their attention. It will give announcements of the meetings of the larger teachers' associations in the country and accounts of their work. Its columns will always be open to the questions and contributions of teachers of the social studies. It is hoped that THE SOCIAL STUDIES will serve as a clearing house of ideas and ideals that will aid teachers of junior and senior high schools in their work of training citizens for a great democracy.

The personnel of the Board of Advisory Editors will be announced shortly in a forthcoming number of the magazine. A careful selection will be made in order to secure a board that will be representative, not only of different sections of the country, but also of those engaged either directly or indirectly in the work of teaching the social studies in secondary schools.

For the past help from contributors and subscribers, the management is sincerely grateful. For the future, a program is promised far beyond what has ever been attempted before. Such a policy, however, will require the whole-hearted support and coöperation of teachers of the social studies in all parts of the country. With this support, THE SOCIAL STUDIES can be made not only useful, but invaluable to teachers, and more important still, through teachers to the American people whom they serve.

The Use of the Motion Picture as a Technique of Instruction

GRACE HOTCHKISS
Hyde Park High School, Chicago, Illinois

Introduction

The use of the motion picture as a planned and regular technique of instruction in United States History II classes was the subject of an experiment conducted at Hyde Park High School, Chicago, during the spring semester of 1936.

Subject Matter

Eight units which trace the rise and development of the most significant trends in modern American history comprise the field of the course, which is the second semester's work in the subject. A study of motion pictures related to the subject matter under discussion was part of the assignment for each unit. At the close of the course, one motion picture was used as part of the review work. Table II shows the units of the course, the films used in connection with each unit, and the relationship of the pictures to the units.

The films, with one exception, fall into two general classes, first, those pictures which trace historically the development of some aspect of the unit; the second, those which illustrate the characteristics of the unit or of some aspect of the unit. The motion picture, *Headlines of a Century,* is in itself a review of the outstanding features in the social, economic and political life of the American nation for the last half century. Table III shows the classification of the motion pictures according to subject matter treatment.

Instructional Activities

The motion pictures for the unit were listed as part of the reference material on the mimeographed lesson sheet. Their relation to the unit was explained in the general directions for the preparation of the unit material given by the teacher. The special type of activity to be employed in the study of a picture was also part of the preliminary instructions for the unit study. In the instructor's overview a discussion of the picture was sometimes introduced as illustrative of the points needing emphasis.

An enriched understanding of the unit as a whole is, of course, the justification for the use of the motion picture. To that end, certain definite activities to be part of the organized unit material were based directly on the subject matter of the films and listed on the work sheets. Following are some of the activities used:

1. A series of questions especially planned to show the relationship of the picture information to the unit.
2. A skeleton outline to be developed into an informational outline.
3. A summary, emphasizing the outstanding features of the picture and showing how the study of the film aided in the understanding of the unit.
4. A list of general principles to be proved by illustrative material from the film. These were organized in a chart together with several other types of proof such as references to expert opinion, direct quotations or summarized discussions from writings of authorities as well as still pictures and graphs and charts.
5. A series of events to be arranged in time order.
6. Maps, charts, graphs, based on information in the film.

Activities during the class hour in which the picture is shown can be managed in several ways. As a usual practice, the class watched a sound film through with no discussion unless some pupil asked for a second showing of a part of the film, or asked that the picture be stopped at a special scene for additional explanation. The silent film offers more opportunity for variety in presentation. Some of the techniques are listed below.

1. A lecture by one pupil.
2. A lecture by the class teacher.
3. Informal comments by the class teacher.
4. A committee report with several pupils taking part.
5. A lecture by an authority, either from within or without the school. One of the art teachers in the school discussed the features of the film on American art, and a bank cashier came out to the school to talk about the film on banking.
6. A question and answer recitation. The questions must be carefully planned so that they

add to and do not detract from the film. They must be timed so that they are announced just before the material which supplies the answer appears on the screen. A very much smaller number of questions than is typical with the average question and answer recitation are all that can be profitably used.

"Follow-up" Procedure

It is imperative that some class time immediately following the showing of the film be devoted to a discussion of the picture. Especially is this true for the first few pictures. The mental set of the pupil toward motion pictures must be changed. The use of the films for instructional purposes is a comparatively recent practice. The "movie" has meant recreation to the young American. Any informational gain has been a by-product of, or a sort of side issue to, the main end of entertainment. Consequently, pupils settle themselves comfortably in their seats to enjoy the picture as a passing show. So accustomed are they to watching a picture, enjoying it for the moment, and then forgetting it, that a definite effort must be made by the teacher to drive home the pertinent aspects of the film while its details may be easily recalled.

Any type of recitation which is suited to the type of material is profitable. Sometimes a part of a class period is sufficient. A special assignment for the recitation can be made, but since definite assignments for the picture material had been made at the beginning of the study of the unit, as a general rule, no other assignment was made. There was a running assignment that, during the class period immediately following the showing of the picture, the recitation would be devoted to the motion picture.

It is well to make a time allowance for questions from the floor. In the "follow-up" recitation for some of the more technical industrial films this is absolutely necessary. Whatever the type of class procedure used it must serve to realize one aim, that of broadening the concept of the unit through the illustrative material provided in the film.

Testing

Subject matter of the motion picture can be tested as easily as any other type of subject matter taught to a class, and likewise attitudes resulting from the showing of the picture and the discussion of it, can be ascertained. A brief class test, either new type or essay, is an excellent method to use in the "follow-up" recitation.

In the procedure that we have been using, a unit test follows the completion of the unit. The film material had a definite place in this test. When a new type of test was used, an entire question, usually of the completion type was included, or acquaintance with the picture was part of the information scattered through several questions. Questions for the essay test were managed in the same way. Knowledge gained from the study of a picture will be reviewed more systematically if the pupil expects that he will be responsible for using it.

Evaluation of Results

It is rather difficult to make a scientific evaluation of the use of the motion picture in a small class experiment, especially since it is only one of several sources contributing to the mastery of the unit. There were, however, some interesting aspects of the use of the film which seem to show that motion pictures have a definite function in the classroom.

In the first place, the pupils enjoyed the pictures. This enjoyment brought concentration. Attention was uniformly excellent during the showing of the picture. The "follow-up" recitation was always interesting. Questions were eager and worth while; everyone had some spontaneous contribution to make to the class discussion.

A larger proportion of the class succeeded in answering those questions on the unit test which were based on the film than those based on the readings and text assignments. An average of eighty per cent of the pupils were able to write correct answers to questions based on the readings; an average of eighty-five per cent answered correctly questions based on class discussion; and an average of ninety-one per cent gave correct answers to questions based on the films. It was not possible to judge results as accurately for those questions which were based on a variety of experiences.

Provision for Individual Differences

The use of the motion picture as a teaching device affords many opportunities to adjust instruction to individual differences. The superior students prepared lectures to be given to explain the silent films, or served as chairmen of committees making group reports. Students who did not have the ability to make sustained reports for an entire film, gave very creditable talks in connection with committee reports.

New avenues of interest opened up by the "movies" were investigated by the abler students who volunteered additional reports. After a showing of *Within These Gates,* a picture on women in industry, released by the Women's Bureau, U. S. Department of Labor, one pupil corresponded with the Bureau and made an interesting exhibit of twenty posters which was used to illustrate a thirty-minute talk on *The Present Status of Women in Industry.* A boy made a tour of the CCC camps in the immediate vicinity and gave a first hand report of the work being done in the neighborhood of Chicago, to sup-

plement the film, *CCC Fights Erosion.* Interested in the personnel of TVA, two pupils corresponded with Dr. Arthur Morgan, who is in charge of TVA, received the brochures written by Dr. Morgan and released by Antioch College of which institution he is president. Both pupils entered Antioch College in the fall of 1936.

There is no question of the aid which visual representation meant to those pupils who cannot readily understand the printed page. The details of mass production, the influence of labor saving machinery, the precision in modern manufacturing, the evolution of the airplane in less than the life time of their parents—to mention only a few of the technicalities of modern industry—became real and vivid to children of meager opportunity and slow intellect.

Socializing Experiences

Very beneficial social experiences arise from the motion picture program. One of the aims of a modern classroom is the creation of life situations. The film is unique in its contribution toward presentation of real and vivid experiences from the world at large. United States History II became more than a matter of past experiences which had no place in the pupil's life. It enabled the individual to fuse new material into his own background of experience. The classroom was broadened into a new, vivid world of which each pupil became a part.

The motion picture is very much a part of modern American life. Some discriminating judgment must be developed in the American public if the motion picture is to contribute to enrichment of that life. The school is undoubtedly the place to begin that development. Cultural appreciation of art and music can be broadened. The film on American art served to introduce the foundation of understanding of modern American painting. The pictures on the World War, and peace were the focal points for discussion of the individual's duty in aiding in the preservation of peace. The TVA film, the picture on soil erosion campaigns, and the one treating the fight against disease, served to widen the pupil's knowledge of the social responsibilities of American citizens. Contact with the occupational world was built up through films to establish a background of experience. The evolution of the oil industry, the activities of the U. S. Department of Agriculture, and the stock market, developed an understanding of occupations, and the nature of the work of the world, as well as the social and economic significances of various aspects of the occupational world.

The opportunities for group work in the employment of films are many. Earlier in this paper were mentioned the group reports given in the classroom in connection with the showing of the pictures. A class committee had charge of returning films by mail or by messenger. Another committee ordered the films and brought those to the school which did not come by mail. The same committee worked out a time schedule for the showing of the pictures, reserved the machine and the screen and secured the operators. A group of the superior students helped in the selection of the films for the course. Students responsible for individual and group reports made arrangements to have previews so as to plan effective talks. Probably the use of the film in the history class afforded more socializing opportunities than any other single device.

The committee work in preparation for the motion picture showings gave an opportunity for excellent socialized recitations. Practically every member of the class had some share in this project. The committees worked in their groups during the class hour as well as before and after school. The interest in the project motivated the work with little teacher assistance.

Mechanics of the Film Program

The high school owns a sixteen millimeter picture machine with sound attachment, a smaller, less powerful machine without sound, and a portable screen. Reservations for use of the machines and the screen were made with one of the office secretaries. If the teacher wished to use the science laboratory auditorium or the assembly hall, he made the arrangements about transferring the classes with the teachers concerned.

One of the science teachers trained student operators who were most efficient and helpful, and worked out a schedule based on the study periods of these operators, so that there was an operator for each machine for each period, and no person had to be excused from his regular class attendance. He also took care of repairing breaks, and of helping in ordering and returning films. He was a sort of clearing house for film information. He kept a file of catalogues, interviewed salesmen and corresponded with renting and lending agencies. He inspected the equipment and checked up the operation of it. This service made the use of films very simple, and gave the classroom teachers more time to concentrate on the actual technique of teaching with the film.

Financing the Film Program

The cost of a program of motion pictures need not be exorbitant. Of the thirty-five different pictures used in this experiment, twenty-seven were loaned free of charge, the only expense connected with them being the cost of mailing, where they could not be picked up. One of these, *America Goes Over* is a rental film, but the family of a pupil lent it for the use of the class. The average cost per reel was $1.50 a day. The entire cost of the program was $27.50,

and of that sum $15.00 was expended for one film. The school had a small general fund available for rentals and postage. The class members were asked to contribute five cents each toward the rental fees if they so wished. No pressure of any kind was used to get the contribution. Many pupils offered more with the remark that admission to a commercial "movie" cost much more. Sometimes two or three teachers working in the same field arranged their class programs to use the same picture at their class hours so that several classes contributed to the cost of one picture. In this manner the rental for the film, the postage, and a small surplus to put into the general motion picture fund were realized on each rented film.

The only very expensive picture used was *Headlines of a Century,* the rental of which was $15.00. All the teachers of United States History II and Modern History used this picture so that all expenses were met and seven dollars profit was realized.

Sixty-four reels of pictures were shown throughout the semester. The average cost was thus a slight fraction over forty cents a reel for motion picture instruction for five hundred pupils, which does not seem a prohibitive cost.

Details of Management

As a result of the experiment, certain details of management were found to be most effective. Two reels is the best length motion picture to show in a forty-minute class period. This gives ample opportunity for setting up and taking down equipment, rewinding the film, and stopping the picture at salient points for additional explanation and discussion. It gives time for an introductory talk and does not necessitate making the operators late for their next appointments. If the equipment has been set up previous to the beginning of the period, so that the showing can start promptly, three average length reels can be run in a class period.

Films can be shown effectively in an average classroom with ordinary window shades drawn, if there is no direct sunlight coming into the room. If neither a standard screen nor roll screen is available, the white back of a large map is equally effective. The motion picture machine is powerful enough in the smaller room to make a clear image in the semi-darkness.

Even though most schools do not have a classroom equipped for motion pictures, the use of the auditorium usually means having more than one class in the room. At present the classroom is the best place to use in presenting pictures. In fact, the atmosphere of a regular recitation period can be maintained to a better advantage in a classroom. Just as soon as several classes come together for a motion picture showing, the group spirit of a motion picture theatre is introduced, and the occasion becomes social rather than intellectual. The teacher finds the development of a proper audience attitude the main concern of the period rather than the enrichment of the pupils' experiences in the interpretation of a history unit. Especially will better results come from the showing of a specialized educational film in a classroom where there is opportunity for explanation. A picture which has so wide an appeal that it will make a personal contract with every pupil can be used effectively with a large group of several classes in the auditorium. Such a picture is the *Headlines of a Century.* Sound "movies," too, are better in a large auditorium than are silent pictures.

Silent films seem to produce as good results as sound films. The pupils were as keenly interested in the talks of the teacher or fellow students as they were in the explanations of the picture specialists. Generally speaking, the recitation hour of the sound film is easy to handle because it requires no class procedure, but the "follow-up" recitation must be carefully planned for often the speaker is more concerned with the entertainment angle of his talk than its educational value and it is necessary to provide more exact explanation. A few sound "movies" have very effective synchronized tone relations, and these of course, enhance the emotional appeal.

It is difficult to get sound "movies" for the sixteen millimeter picture machine, but more and more pictures are being made, especially as the demand for educational films is growing. For this experiment, however, only seven sound films that fitted the subject matter and course organization could be found.

It is the intention of the school to build up a film library of such pictures as will have a constant educational value. A beginning in this direction has been made with the purchase of natural science films from the University of Chicago. At the present time, the best films for use in social sciences are either free or are too prohibitive in price to be purchased. Until good films can be purchased at nominal prices, the best procedure is the use of free films supplemented by those for which a small rental is charged.

A teacher cannot efficiently or effectively present a motion picture to a class unless he is familiar with it. The situation is exactly the same as in the case of the use of written reference material. The pupils who are to have charge of the picture presentation must also see the picture in order to plan their attack. All pictures, therefore, must arrive a day or two ahead of schedule and thus an opportunity for preview will present itself. Commercial companies which sell films or motion picture equipment are always most interested in running previews.

Until a teacher has experimented with motion pictures over a period of time, the only way he can arrange a program is by use of the trial and error

method. The title and advertising explanations do not always give a sufficient background. Even if they are faithful representations of subject matter, the picture may not realize expectations.

The motion picture references should be planned when the course is planned. They should be as important in the course as any other reference material. The films should, moreover, be reserved well in advance, so that there is only a bare possibility that they will not be available at that juncture in the course where they fit. Free films especially government films, are apt to be booked fairly well in advance, so it pays to get the reservations made as early as possible.

The following procedure was followed in working out the film program in this experiment. The teacher and the student committee canvassed the exhaustive film catalogues put out by commercial companies. Several companies have very fine lists both of producers and pictures which they issue as advertising. In the same manner, the catalogues of agencies handling free films were checked. A tentative program was laid out. Pupils wrote to the producers for additional explanatory information on the pictures chosen. Government agencies, private corporations, such as Ford and International Harvester, were contacted. In the light of these materials, the final list was made out. Free films were reserved at once. All possible sources from which pictures might be borrowed were examined. When it seemed impossible to get a rental film from any free source, and when no free substitute could be located, the rental film was reserved. It is well to have a small library of reference material in the school for consultation.

Conclusion

The increased interest in the class work, the keen enjoyment of the film recitation hour, and the really excellent work of many pupils, seem to justify the film program in the United States History II class. One pupil made this parting observation which seems to sum up the aim: "It's great to have learned to use a 'movie' like you use a book."

TABLE I

ALPHABETICAL INDEX OF MOTION PICTURES

Name	Kind	Reels	Price	Agency
1. America Goes Over	Silent	Five	$3.50	Motion Picture Bureau National Council, Y.M.C.A. 19 S. La Salle Street Chicago, Illinois
2. American Wing of Metropolitan Museum	Silent	One	Free	Metropolitan Museum 5th Avenue and 82nd Street New York City
3. Anthracite	Silent	One	Free	American Museum of Natural History 77th Street and Central Park Way New York City
4. Behind Scenes in Machine Age	Silent	Three	Free	Women's Bureau Dept. of Labor Washington, D.C.
5. Challenge of TVA	Silent	Two	Free	Tennessee Valley Authority Nashville, Tennessee
6. A Citizen and His Government	Silent	Two	$2.00	Society for Visual Education 327 S. La Salle Street Chicago, Illinois
7. CCC Fights Erosion	Sound	One	Free	Dept. of Agriculture Washington, D.C.
8. Cotton—From Seed to Cloth	Silent	Two	Free	Amer. Museum of Nat. History 77th Street and Central Park Way New York City
9. Dixie	Silent	Three	Free	Dept. of Visual Education Board of Education 150 W. Ohio Street Chicago, Illinois
10. Evolution of Oil Industry	Silent	Three	Free	Amer. Museum of Nat. History 77th Street and Central Park Way New York City
11. 4-H Club Work	Sound	Three	Free	Dept. of Agriculture Washington, D.C.
12. From Iron Ore to Pig Iron	Silent	One	Free	Dept. of Visual Education Board of Education 150 W. Ohio Street Chicago, Illinois
13. From Pig Iron to Steel	Silent	One	Free	Dept. of Visual Education Board of Education 150 W. Ohio Street Chicago, Illinois

TABLE I (Continued)

ALPHABETICAL INDEX OF MOTION PICTURES

Name	Kind	Reels	Price	Agency
14. Fly America	Sound	Two	Free	National Council, Y.M.C.A. 19 S. La Salle Street Chicago, Illinois
15. Hawaiian Islands	Silent	One	$1.50	Eastman Kodak Company Rochester, New York
16. Headlines of a Century	Sound	Three	$15.00	Films, Inc. 330 W. 42nd Street New York City
17. Immigration to United States	Silent	One	$1.50	Society for Visual Education 327 S. La Salle Street Chicago, Illinois
18. Inland Waterways	Sound	Two	Free	Dept. of Motion Pictures University of Chicago Chicago, Illinois
19. Man Against Microbes	Sound	One	Free	Metropolitan Life Ins. Co. 1 Madison Avenue New York City
20. Modern Banking	Silent	One	$1.50	Metropolitan Motion Picture Company 108 W. 34th Street New York City
21. Nation's Market Place	Silent	Two	Free	American Museum of Nat. History 77th Street and Central Park Way New York City
22. New Voice Highways	Sound	One	Free	National Council, Y.M.C.A. 19 S. La Salle Street Chicago, Illinois
23. Our Daily Bread	Silent	One	Free	American Museum of Nat. History 77th Street and Central Park Way New York City
24. Panama Canal	Silent	One	Free	Dept. of Visual Education Board of Education 150 W. Ohio Street Chicago, Illinois
25. Philippine Islands	Silent	One	$1.50	Eastman Kodak Company Rochester, New York
26. Power	Silent	Two	Free	Dept. of Visual Education Board of Education 150 W. Ohio Street Chicago, Illinois
27. Printing a Newspaper	Silent	Two	Free	Dept. of Visual Education Board of Education 150 W. Ohio Street Chicago, Illinois
28. Romance of Reaper	Sound	Five	Free	International Harvester Co. 66 S. Michigan Avenue Chicago, Illinois
29. Samoa	Silent	One	$1.50	Burton Holmes Films, Inc. 510 N. Ashland Avenue Chicago, Illinois
30. Story of Our National Parks	Silent	One	Free	Dept. of Interior Washington, D.C.
31. Story of Women's Bureau	Silent	One	Free	Women's Bureau Dept. of Labor Washington, D.C.
32. Dept. of Agriculture	Silent	One	Free	Dept. of Agriculture Washington, D.C.
33. Why! War! Want! Waste!	Silent	Two	$2.00	National Council, Y.M.C.A. 19 S. La Salle Street Chicago, Illinois
34. Wings of a Century	Silent	Two	Free	Dept. of Visual Education Board of Education 150 W. Ohio Street Chicago, Illinois
35. Within These Gates	Silent	Two	Free	Women's Bureau Dept. of Labor Washington, D.C.

TABLE II

RELATIONSHIP OF MOTION PICTURES TO UNITS OF INSTRUCTION

Unit	Name of Film	Relation of Film to Unit
Unit I Extension of Peoples and Territories	1. Immigration to United States	Important "Waves" of immigration and their causes Contributions made by immigrants to American civilization
	2. Hawaiian Islands	Life and industries at the crossroads of the Pacific
	3. Philippine Islands	Features of Philippine civilization
	4. Samoa	Coconuts and Copra—Main industry
Unit II International Relations	1. America Goes Over	Official United States Government pictures of the World War
	2. Why! War! Want! Waste!	An appeal for peace by showing effects of war
	3. Panama Canal	Construction of the Canal and its effect on Western Hemisphere
Unit III Development of Law and Order	1. Dixie	Plantation life in South, the Civil War and the surrender of Lee
	2. CCC Fights Erosion	A phase of the work being done by one of the newest social agencies
	3. A Citizen and His Government	The relation of the functions of the Federal Government to the average citizen
	4. Challenges of TVA	Study of the social opportunities back of the development of TVA
Unit IV Social and Intellectual development	1. American Wing of Metropolitan Museum	Outstanding examples of American art
	2. Men Against Microbes	Fight of science against preventable disease since the days of the London Plague
	3. The Story of Our National Parks	Government's contribution toward helping citizen enjoy his leisure time
	4. Printing of a Newspaper—The *Chicago Daily News*	The importance of the press in modern American life
	5. Story of the Women's Bureau	Work of the government in solving problems of women's work and history of efforts to improve working conditions for women
Unit V Agriculture	1. Cotton—From Seed to Cloth	Planting, growing, picking, ginning, marketing, manufacturing of most important Southern crop
	2. 4-H Club Work	Promotion of agricultural information by the government among farm boys and girls
	3. Our Daily Bread	Story of the development of methods of growing, harvesting, threshing, milling, America's great cereal crop
	4. Romance of the Reaper	Story picture of invention of reaper, in 1831 and development in last 100 years
	5. United States Department of Agriculture	Major activities of one of the greatest departments of government
Unit VI Industry	1. Anthracite	Early mining and modern methods
	2. Behind the Scenes in Machine Age	Human waste in modern industry
	3. Evolution of Oil Industry	Development of petroleum from earliest times with emphasis on importance to modern civilization
	4. From Iron Ore to Pig Iron 5. From Pig Iron to Steel	Modern methods of mining and manufacturing the most useful of all metals
	6. Within These Gates	The story of women in the textile manufacture
Unit VII Transportation and Communication	1. Fly America	Modern air transportation
	2. Inland Waterways	Government's efforts to rehabilitate river transportation
	3. New Voice Highways	History of telephone cable
	4. Power	From beginning to the present, the story of power in transportation
	5. Wings of a Century	The drama of railway transportation
Unit VIII Finance	1. Modern Banking	The daily routine in bank business
	2. Nation's Market Place	Method and system of transactions in stocks
Review	Headlines of a Century	Paramount news reel of a half century of outstanding events in American public life

TABLE III

FILMS CLASSIFIED ON A BASIS OF TREATMENT OF SUBJECT MATTER

NAMES OF FILMS WHICH ARE HISTORICAL IN DEVELOPMENT OF SUBJECT

1. Anthracite
2. Cotton—From Seed to Cloth
3. Evolution of Oil Industry
4. Headlines of a Century
5. Immigration to United States
6. Man Against Microbes
7. New Voice Highways
8. Our Daily Bread
9. Power
10. Romance of the Reaper
11. Story of Our National Parks
12. Story of the Women's Bureau
13. Wings of a Century
14. Within These Gates

NAMES OF FILMS WHICH ARE DESCRIPTIVE OF PRESENT DAY CONDITIONS

1. America Goes Over
2. American Wing of Metropolitan Museum
3. Behind the Scenes in the Machine Age
4. Challenge of TVA
5. A Citizen and His Government
6. CCC Fights Erosion
7. Dixie
8. 4-H Club Work
9. From Iron Ore to Pig Iron
10. From Pig Iron to Steel
11. Fly America
12. Hawaiian Islands
13. Inland Waterways
14. Modern Banking
15. The Nation's Market Place
16. Panama Canal
17. Philippine Islands
18. Printing a Newspaper
19. Samoa
20. United States Department of Agriculture
21. Why! War! Want! Waste!

Teaching History That Functions For Daily Living

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Shall history be allowed to remain in the secondary school curriculum? Is required history—usually one or two units toward a high school diploma—any longer justifiable? Are we getting our money's worth from the kind of history teaching being given in many schools? Should history really be "studied," or merely read and enjoyed? In our teaching why is there so little (if any) differentiation between what is taught future college graduates and probable specialists in history, and that numerically much larger group—the generalists—to whom interest in history will always be that of laymen and non-specialists? Such questions are being asked increasingly and with vigor by thoughtful teachers, administrators, and the public in general—most of them non-specialists in history. Growing and progressive teachers welcome searching for truth and improvement in teaching methods; only threatened complaisance, vested inertia, and traditional formalism are ill at ease.

The report of the Commission on the Social Studies challenges formal type teaching in the social studies. Criticism of instruction and methods are being constantly paraded. Processes and products alike are under fire. This indicates loss of faith in what is taking place in many history classrooms. Every wide-awake social studies teacher is familiar with the general pattern of criticism: material that is now taught is unrelated to the problems that confront society; subject matter is static; undue emphasis is now placed on isolated concrete facts, often merely memorized and not really understood by pupils; what is being taught is highly non-realistic and foreign to the experience level of the pupil; fixation of habit-thinking is stressed at the expense of purposeful living; history courses, in fact, fail to prepare the pupil for successful living; and finally, his interest in reading history for recreational purposes is often killed by what he has experienced in the classroom.

If the ultimate outcomes of secondary education are health, vocational information and guidance, recreational living, and adequate discharge of social responsibilities, then it is apparent that much of our history teaching fails to accomplish any of these

aims. How many high school graduates (or college, for that matter) pick up history texts or reference books with relish and zest in later life as part of their recreational reading and living experiences? Books of historical nature—fiction and biography, for instance—which they do read, are often condemned by the history specialist as "unscholarly," "truncated," "popularized," "fictionized," and "cheapened." A real, abiding, pleasurable, leisure-time interest in history as a possible hobby has generally been ridden only in the face of disapproval by the experts.Who can prove that the formal, conventional type of history teaching to which hundreds of thousands of high school youth have been exposed the past quarter of a century, has actually resulted in helping any of them better to meet their social responsibilities?

Excepting the story of our own country, teaching of history in its present forms and methods—history as history and for history's sake—will probably diminish in popularity and support in high schools as have formal algebra, geometry, Latin, and Greek. Even now the subject is altogether too often grouped in the public mind with these so-called "dead subjects." It is beginning to lose its more-or-less privileged status as a required subject for high school graduation or for college entrance. These statements may appear rash.[1] If the teacher doubts how truthful they are or of the utter lack of faith of the public in the teaching of history as they have experienced it, let him talk with high school graduates five or more years out of school, parents, Boards of Education, and other non-specialists in history. His self-deceptive and comfortable delusions concerning the efficacy and carry-over values of formal teaching will receive a rude jolt. Even college professors—who themselves are a vested interest in perpetuating the status-quo—often prefer to enroll students in their classes who have had no previous study of history in high or preparatory school.

How remedy the situation? The remedy lies in formulating a new method or approach of instruction which concerns itself with pupil interests and pupil problems. Such an approach is dynamic; the conventional approach deals largely with static, abstract subject matter unrelated to contemporary life problems. Subject matter organized with pupil interests and pupil experiential levels in mind *does* build the background necessary for an understanding of the crucial problems that face him today and tomorrow. Subject matter becomes vital and effective when organized with this principle kept in mind. We believe it is as impossible for the average adolescent individual to derive the lessons from past life experienced by others as it is for him to derive sustenance from food consumed by others. We also believe it is impossible for him to savor and enjoy today's food, or tomorrow's, by merely the memory of what he had to eat last week, or last year. We believe, and act upon that belief, that learning takes place only if purposeful activity takes place.

Let us see how it works in practice. For the third year our teachers at Appleton High School are conducting an experiment with an American history course designed to teach "life" as we live it today instead of "just about life" as it was lived in the past. We are endeavoring to build a course which veers away from emphasizing unrelated skills and isolated and memorized bits of information concerning the experience of others, into a course which builds for a broader, basic understanding of politico-socio-economic concepts that touch the pupil's individual and community contemporary life. Seeking goals and attempting to solve problems is the kernel of thought and action in our history classrooms. Such a course gives due and prominent attention to basic changes now sweeping American life; their historical background and origins, too, are not overlooked. But we begin with the problem as it exists here and now; particularly, as it confronts the pupil as an American citizen today. Historical origins of the problem being studied are merely incidental, the tools as it were, with which he attacks and attempts to understand and control the particular modern-day problem he is studying. American problems become his problems. As a member of the rising generation he will have to meet and solve them. Our approach constantly emphasizes the pupil's present living, his present problems, and gives him a chance to face life itself as he bumps up against life situations.

Our method of "studying" American history, then, becomes a study of American problems. We begin the year by having students (seniors) compile a list of contemporary problems they feel are crucial. Reading of current newspapers and periodicals supplemented by what they hear at home and on the street helps build this list. This list is not handed down, ready-made, from instructor to pupil. Then several days are spent in class recording these problems on the blackboard, consolidating, supplementing, classifying, and clarifying so that each issue is separate and distinct by itself.

This list of American issues confronting the American citizen today includes these: unemployment, relief, overproduction or underconsumption, propaganda and the news, tariff and foreign trade, leisure time and purposeful living, crime, conservation of human and natural resources, coöperatives and capitalism, government regulation of economic life or economic planning, economic imperialism, growing intolerances and the various isms in American life, and others. The instructor then devotes the following several days talking over these problems in class and by making the discussion somewhat pro-

vocative, he generally succeeds in arousing at least tentative conclusions around felt convictions (often the first the pupil has had on any problem), so that the pupil has sufficient emotional interest to support or oppose the issue on at least several problems. This interest in and consequent effort to "prove" his point or side he has chosen, supplies the initial impetus and stimulus to get the student to see the need for and to seek further data to prove his convictions. Each student, therefore, selects his problem or problems from the list on the board for individual study and research.

In our experimentation thus far, we have charted these miscellaneous American problems under five main control units: Economic Imperialism, Industrial Adjustments, Agricultural Adjustments, Social and Cultural Adjustments, and Evolution of Democracy. In the latter, we also point out that democracy may evolve either upward or downward. Practically all the miscellaneous and multitudinous items or events in American history of social use to modern Americans can be grouped under one or more of these five central themes.

These main control units are organized not merely for purposes of academic discussion, but so that their content will bring out the problems of the day in rugged and sharp outline. Conclusions or proposed solutions after proper study and discussion come out of the student's own thought-experience, and are never proposed or forced by the instructor. The instructor, however, acts as ever-present guide. The pupil faces challenging social situations constantly and we suggest to have him do something about them in the remedies he proposes. The important part that general good will, coöperation between men and nations (without which life cannot be made good), and reasoned intelligence play, rather than force, in the ultimate settlement of all modern problems is not left unnoticed in class discussion. In short, we aim to have the pupil recognize change, welcome desirable changes, and help make those changes desirable by the conscious realization that intelligence *can* improve American society.

The student soon sees that he can arrive at no intelligent understanding or solution of any modern American problem without invoking frequent aid from portions of past history, government, economics, sociology, geography, etc. In viewing the modern problem of Agricultural Adjustment, for example, he soon discovers that we have always had an agrarian problem in America, as in fact, in the world. But he is taught to sift and choose rigidly, utilizing only historical data that will be of direct aid in developing an understanding of what he is studying. Proper understanding can frequently be obtained by disregarding so-called logical or chronological organization of materials as found in standard formal textbooks. Perusal of this article reveals that we have substituted a sounder psychological organization of subject matter approach, based on pupils' daily life interests and needs. Only such organized knowledge is used as aids in understanding of American history that functions in daily American life today. Everything else—highly interesting, or entertaining, or scholarly, or chronological as it may be—is ruthlessly cast aside as extraneous and confusing for our purposes.

Each of the five main units has a controlling central idea that serves as guide to instructor and student. The central theme for instance, kept uppermost and flown as sort of a guide-line at the mast-head, as developed in the unit Industrial Adjustments, is the struggle for industrial democracy in America. Stated another way, it is the rise of the common man, or the problem of how to get more of the good things of life for more people. Attacking this unit in class, such problems as these are discovered, isolated, charted, organized, and finally, tentative solutions proposed: unemployment; technological displacement of man-power; overproduction or underconsumption; tariff; relief; labor organization; strikes; government regulation, control, ownership; economic planning; modifications of capitalism; strengths and weaknesses of forms of governments, domestic and foreign; and several others.

Many sub-units are isolated and attacked in similar fashion: the labor movement and political parties; propaganda and pressure groups; immigration; banking and investment; poverty; crime; urbanism; corruption and reform; more recent attempts at government regulation; transportation and communications. We repeat this caution: in developing the central control unit—the struggle for industrial democracy—only such subject matter is utilized that leads the student straight toward his conclusion, his proposed understanding and possible solution of the problem. A great deal of dead timber and unnecessary verbal underbrush is discarded. And yet the student consults and uses much more material than is found in the usual history textbook or with which he comes into contact in the conventionalized, formal textbook, classroom approach. He also has the benefit of and is enabled to do critical, comparative thinking by consulting several reputable sources of information, sometimes contradictory.

It is extremely interesting, and somewhat startling, to observe how avidly many seniors in American history uncover American problems and track them to their lairs under this method of functionalized teaching. It reminds one anew of the old statement that "real education is dangerous." That it is of some personal and professional danger to the teacher, and the administrator who proposes to defend it, is hereby readily admitted. The teacher, and somewhat our

method, are under attack at this very writing in our school, on one ground only: that it is "dangerous thought" as the Japanese would say. This does not mean that anything seriously is wrong with the method; rather, the social environment in which the method is being tried, needs to be changed.

By means of this approach the pupil builds more firmly patterns of thought and action with which to attack social problems. History now serves him as a force that functions in his daily life; a force that continues to construct and re-construct his personality in the light of this method of individual research.

With this approach, the problem of supplementary or parallel reading becomes charged with purpose and meaning. He now manages to get a firm hold of basic issues and their historical reasons for being, and is thus enabled to make the transition between historical and current events. In other words, history and current events as such drop out of the picture and out of our vocabulary; instead, contemporary problems are projected on the screen and intelligence is focused upon them in the light of all available sources of help, historical or current. Soon his reading in current periodicals and newspapers becomes more intelligible to the pupil, because his original study of the control unit has taught him to recognize and isolate the problem, then to face it as his responsibility, then to analyze it, and finally to collect all available sources or materials with which to attain his goal, or suggested solution, not forgetting to search anew among recorded human experiences in answer to the question, the final test: "Will my proposed solution work? If not, let me revise it, and try it over again."

Implications of this approach to the study of history are many. It has resulted in fundamentally changing our practice of teaching. First of all, we find that regular rows of pupil desks do not adapt themselves to our approach; we have substituted large tables and chairs. Second, the textbook—a single textbook—went next; instead, we have from ten to twenty-five copies of every modern and revised textbook published on American history in each classroom. Pupils pay for these instead of purchasing a text. Third, this foreshadows the decentralized library: we now operate a fleet of book trucks and canvas bags which travel almost hourly from library to classroom. Each history classroom has now become a library-laboratory.

Fourth, this method is forcing a change in our vocabularies: the terms "history course," "subject-matter," "classroom," "recitation," "history department," "textbook," and the concepts question-answer, memoriter type of recitation, teacher-stands-in-front-of-class type of set-up, we now think are stereotyped, formalized, and obsolete. These terms just do not have any place in our thinking any longer (and cannot, where problem-solving is all-important). They are dropping from our vocabularies. To our pupils we stress that they are entering a library-laboratory *vs.* a history classroom; problems to be solved *vs.* lessons to be learned; control units *vs.* pages to be studied; and in our method we use the panel discussion by pupils and teacher as against the lecture by teacher and recitation by pupils.

Fifth, a principle that needs more study in modern secondary school administration—the principle of flexibility—comes to the front in administering this method. Removal of stationary pupils' desks; a traveling in-building library; increase in number, quality, and variety of so-called reference materials, maps, periodicals, and the like; and just mere abolition of one fixed text—the physical presence of which often acts as deterrent to change, and research technique, with many pupils and teachers—all contribute to this most important but little understood principle of secondary school administration. Furthermore, this method makes much more use of the blackboard than is customary in many history classrooms, a welcome change and one that helps pictorialize the spoken word with consequent improvement in the learning situation. Lastly, this approach fosters social as opposed to purely individual thinking on the part of the pupil. Our type of approach is calculated to help him think: "I am going to school to be able to help solve our American problems," instead of "I am going to school to be able to earn a better and easier living."

It might also be said that we are attempting to think of the child outside of his history classroom. In English, for example, each of our pupils is reading literature under the controlled free reading plan, another method that teaches pupils through their own experience and self-directed responsibility for quality and quantity thereof. Each English classroom has also become a library-laboratory in which several hundred copies of classical and non-classical works of fiction, non-fiction, travel, history, biography, poetry, drama, and essays tempt the hungry mind of the pupil. As long as "credits" must still be used, our pupil can earn credit in both history and English by reading identical books. Further correlation between what is happening to the pupil in our classes and those in English are under way in setting-up and agreeing upon a few simple practices in composition to be uniformly observed by the pupil in his written presentations throughout the school.

The "activity" movement has fundamentally altered the elementary school where the whole child and his personality, as distinguished from mastery of separate skills as reading, writing, or arithmetic, for instance, becomes the center of school life. Functional teaching as outlined here can become the activity movement transplanted to the senior high

school classroom. In extra-curricular activities we have always had more or less of it; too seldom does it ever invade the high school classroom.

In conclusion, we have found distinct values in this type of approach. By using a semi-counter chronological approach we align psychology with our method by attacking and organizing the known, the here-and-now, as it affects the pupil's life, before we proceed to the unknown, the way-back-when. Second, we harness the principles of economy and efficiency by our method because we utilize only subject matter that is essential for the construction of the pattern of pupil understanding. Third, we capture the student's interest, and thus his effort, because subject matter now becomes related to life and of meaning to him, for it is directly related to crucial American problems that face him and his American people. Fourth, past history becomes alive with future applications and current history becomes meaningful with past understandings. Fifth, by means of converting each classroom into a library-laboratory, we introduce workshop, problem-solving, coöperative ideas to the pupil, developing in him independence, judgment, and responsibility in planning and thinking problems through. Lastly, pupils now enjoy history and use it in their recreational living, for they easily see its functional aspects in daily life as well as the personal contribution each individual can make by conscious application of intelligence to history's future course in American democracy.

Thus the study of history in high school becomes a study that functions in daily life as it is lived today in America, rather than a hit-and-miss proposition of yesterday unrelated to life and its problems, taken by the pupil only because (1) he must, and (2) he needs the credit. There is no place for any other kind of history teaching in our high schools.

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[1]A nation-wide survey made of 121 city superintendents of schools by the National Self-Government Committee supports these contentions. *School and Society*, June 27, 1936.

Worth J. Osburn, *Are We Making Good at Teaching History?* (Bloomington, Illinois: Public School Publishing Co., 1926), published ten years ago, presents a severe indictment of history teaching. It might as well never have been written as far as changing classroom practics, by and large.

Making Junior High School History Real

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To those of us who are engaged in presenting the panorama of the past to students of high school age, it is no secret that one of our major problems is that of capturing and holding their interest, and if possible awakening in them a love of history. How can we make them feel the reality of the spirit that has lived through the ever-changing background of the past, which is still a dynamic, moving force and will continue to be so, long after all of us are dead and forgotten? How can we make them feel that they too are a small but perhaps important part of this living panorama?

First, let us summarize briefly a few of the main difficulties with which we must contend. One is bound up with the wide range not only in the mental age of the children but in their native ability, character, background, and previous education and training. This may be taken to include in many instances not only a lack of the proper apperceptive anchorage for new knowledge, but an even more fundamental want of good habits of self-control, of discipline, of concentration, of power of thought and judgment, and of the slightest sense of perspective or time-sense in their conception of history.

Besides the difficulties inherent in the character and training of many of the pupils themselves, we must consider the nature and amount of competition for the attention of these often over-stimulated children. Every day each pupil attends five or six different classes, a club, and probably a morning assembly in which there is likely to be some sort of entertainment. In addition, there are after-school dances, or athletics, or rehearsals for a play, or orchestra practice, or some other extra-curricular activity. When pupils finish the school day other activities claim their attention. Many help considerably at home, others work for a large part of the afternoon and evening, while others play; but alas, few do a great deal of studying! Those who care to read at all often prefer the most sensational and highly colored

types of books, magazines, and newspapers—*True Romances* and *The Daily News.* In many homes the radio blares forth loudly and continuously all through the day and much of the night. Around the corner are the "movies" which nightly unfold tales of love and passion, of adventure, and perhaps of horror, vice or crime.[1] Even the "comics" may be more real to many children than the characters in their history book. To many a youngster, how much more vivid and realistic as personalities are Betty Boop, Popeye the Sailor, and Mickey Mouse, whom they actually see cavorting before their delighted eyes, than are Alexander Hamilton or Grover Cleveland. The latter are only names on a printed page—and names of dead men at that! Then there is the social life of these developing adolescents, which is just beginning to assume a new importance in their eyes. Club meetings, dances, and parties crowd closely on their lessons. Perhaps the most utterly absorbing interest of many of them is their sudden interest in each other in this early period of their lives.

Yet in spite of the many and very real difficulties that beset the teacher's path in arousing the interest of the children, her task is by no means a hopeless one. For careful analysis of these things that do claim their attention quickly reveals elements which can be used to advantage, such as the story, the dramatic use of suspense, adventure, the love interest, pictures, objects and concrete materials of all kinds, art, poetry, music, humor, and an appeal to the child's own natural creative and collecting instincts. Why do pupils like to go to the "movies"? Because the pictures tell a story, they will say. But what is history but a story? History is not only a story; more than that, it is actually a true story. Furthermore, when we remember that written history covers a period of about six thousand years, during which time billions of people have lived in all parts of the world, only a very few of whom have been recorded on the pages of history, we naturally ask, "Why were these few remembered while all the rest have been forgotten?" Because these few have done something noteworthy, outstanding, or intresting. History then is a true and interesting story about real people who accomplished real things. If we can only infect our pupils with an eager enthusiasm and an avid and intense curiosity to learn this story!

Merely calling history a story is not enough. In order to make our bait really attractive, we must see to it that our story is made dramatic wherever possible, that it is realistic and thrilling and infused with vivid elements of adventure and suspense. Right here, however, a word of caution is necessary. While the writer believes firmly in utilizing to the utmost whatever dramatic possibilities are really inherent in a situation, on the other hand any distortion of the facts or even stretching of the truth in order to produce or enhance the dramatic aspect is to be condemned. Often, actual facts can be vividly presented to arouse interest. For example, the story of Alexander the Great. Many youngsters will feel comparatively little enthusiasm for Alexander just because he conquered the world. But start those boys off with an exciting account of how he broke in Bucephalus, the wildest horse in the king's stable and a "regular bucking bronco"; follow that by an anecdote of his bravery in battle; and those boys will soon consider Alexander a "regular red-blooded he-man" (their ideal of supreme praise) and follow his later exploits with real interest.

An important ally of the history teacher is the historical novel or other forms of historical fiction.[2] Here caution must be exercised because so often the facts are distorted to make the story dramatic, or through personal bias or carelessness. But after making due allowance for these factors, much of this material is valuable in presenting the historical background more naturally and forcibly than we could do it in the classroom. In the Shoemaker Junior High School in Philadelphia, there is an "Historical Fiction Club," which has a small but fairly good collection of such books to which we add a few each year. Some can be bought second-hand and some of the most popular can be secured at the five-and-ten-cent store. Examples of the latter are "Buffalo Bill," "Daniel Boone," "Eric Noble and the Forty-Niners," "Pioneers of the Wild West," "Robin Hood," and "The First World War." The club uses these books only in school on Tuesdays, Wednesdays, and Thursdays, with a librarian in the class using a card-catalogue system to keep a careful record of the books. Of course most of this material is in prose form, but we do not overlook the interest of certain poems; and of many songs.[3]

Closely akin to these types we find another form that is a potent medium for motivating history—the drama. This includes plays and pageants, and similar dramatic forms presented on the legitimate stage, in the school auditorium, in the "movies," or over the radio. In this connection we should not fail to mention "The Yale Chronicles of America Photoplays," the outstanding example of the best series yet produced for actual presentation in the schools. They have been expressly made for this purpose and admirably worked out to be clear, simple, and accurate in detail, as well as highly interesting. Besides this, their length of three reels, which take about forty to forty-five minutes to show, is adapted to the usual junior high school period. Professor J. A. Krout describes the making of this series: "There are more than eleven thousand pictures carefully selected from a total of thirty-five thousand drawn from museums, art galleries and official archives of seven countries. To collect, arrange, and reproduce

artistically this vast collection of Americana required a common understanding and a careful coördination of effort among research workers, authors, historians, scholars, editorial assistants and publishers." This article goes on further to describe how carefully each minute point is checked upon. The series of photoplays based upon this material includes "Columbus," "The Pilgrims," "The Eve of the Revolution," "The Declaration of Independence," "Vincennes," "Yorktown," "Daniel Boone," and others.[4]

Ordinary commercial moving pictures with an historical setting and historical characters are often invaluable in presenting costumes, customs, and atmosphere, but should be watched for inaccuracies in the story. Many facts are distorted for the sake of dramatic value. Some noteworthy films that have appeared within the last year or two include "The Iron Duke," "The House of Rothschild," "The Scarlet Pimpernel," "Richelieu," "Mary of Scotland," "Nine Days a Queen," and others. Usually the teacher should try to see such a picture early in its presentation and then recommend it to the students, at the same time warning them against any inaccuracies.

Historical plays and pageants presented by pupils in school, whether elaborate or simple and impromptu, are replete with educational value, and especially so when part or all of the plot or dialogue actually originates with pupils themselves. In this connection also might be mentioned the educational value of other forms of imaginative writing which clever pupils should be encouraged to follow, such as the writing of imaginary letters, diaries, editorials, and even poems, describing certain events or surroundings in a definite time and space setting.

This brings us naturally to another form of motivation likely to attract the motor-minded child—the making of maps, pictures, objects, or models. The artistic pupils often love to draw or paint pictures of the scenes, events, or characters in their note books. If blessed with a sense of humor and a flair for seeing analogies, these talents may take the form of cartoons.[5] The neat and painstaking may find self-expression in carefully-made maps, which the more imaginative ones may illuminate with suggestive small pictures in the modern style. Others may produce diagrams or charts. A few pupils may combine several of these forms in an illustrated booklet.

Many pupils with a liking and taste for sculpture or architecture get a keen joy out of constructing models of soap, wood, clay, and plaster, while some of the girls like to dress dolls in period costumes. In her class, the writer tries to motivate all of these activities by means of two "museums"[6]—two bookcases, with glass front and sides, which contain pictures for a background and exhibits in the foreground. The first of these "museums" (called Centuries of Progress) represents ancient and medieval history. On the top shelf imposing dinosaurs, weird mammoths, and fierce saber-toothed tigers disport themselves against a background of synthetic grass and trees. Most of the animals were designed after "The World a Million Years Ago," shown in the Chicago Fair and later in a Philadelphia department store. The second shelf represents, in order, Egyptian, Babylonian, Assyrian, Phoenician, and Hebrew civilizations. Here we see the Sahara Desert (nothing less!) which was produced by three ambitious youths of a former class who collaborated, one making pyramids in correct relative size, another a sphinx, and the third mounting the whole on a box of sand. There was included an oasis, properly equipped with water, some trees, and three camels for good measure. This work of art is carefully guarded by two sinister looking miniature mummies. Close by is the Rosetta Stone and just beyond that a stone tablet with some marks intended to be cuneiform writing. Next comes a chart showing a few letters of the Phoenician alphabet compared with their descendants in the Greek, Latin, and English. The most important of the numerous Hebrew exhibits is a Bible opened to the Ten Commandments.

On the next shelf stately Greek temples, statues, and ships are followed by the Colosseum and several replicas of buildings in the Forum, and also two Roman lamps. The lowest shelf—the medieval—shows Mohammedan ladies discreetly veiled, graceful Gothic cathedrals, and impregnable castles guarded by moats and battlements and defended by knights engaged in mortal combat, while peaceful priests and monks look on in dismay. Farther along, a realistic tournament has brought out a fine array of noble knights and "ladies faire." The American history museum, called "The Story of America," has one shelf for Indian life. The second shelf is for the Colonial period. It has an interesting interior showing a spinning wheel, hour glass, and rag rug before a huge open fireplace, a sun dial in the garden, and a ducking-stool farther over. The third shelf represents the period of the American and Industrial Revolutions, the most interesting models being the Tom Thumb and De Witt Clinton engines. The next is for the Civil War period. The last shelf treats history to the present. Many models have been collected abroad. These have been copied and supplemented by the work of the pupils. Many of the figures (such as Indians and knights), and some of the materials and directions for making such models as the Tom Thumb and De Witt Clinton engines came from a five-and-ten-cent store. This year the writer is teaching a new course in modern European history, and thus a new museum is under construction.

In the course of her travels the writer has been

able to acquire a large collection of pictures, either postcards or larger sizes, as well as snapshots, which are smaller. These are used a great deal, usually in review after having taught an entire subject. They form a basis of motivation also, since the pupils soon learn that there is time for a picture lesson only after the work has been done satisfactorily within the prescribed time. They also serve to make the work realistic.[7]

But in the last analysis the largest measure of a teacher's success in making history real rests upon her own personality. Is she alive and alert? Is she interested and interesting? Does she honestly like history and really like children? After all, history—a study about people—can be well interpreted only by one who has a genuinely sympathetic understanding and a wide tolerance toward the whole human race.

[1] H. J. Forman, *Our Movie Made Children.* (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1933.)

[2] Hannah Logasa, *Historical Fiction and Other Reading References for History Classes in Junior and Senior High Schools* (Philadelphia: McKinley Publishing Company, 1934), is an excellent list of such material.

[3] A. C. and D. H. Bining, *Teaching the Social Studies in Secondary Schools* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1935), pp. 331-334.

[4] J. A. Krout, "The Making of the 'Pageant of America,'" *Historical Outlook,* XXII (March, 1931), 103-107. See also D. C. Knowlton, "Improving the Quality of Instruction in History with the Aid of the Photoplay," *Historical Outlook,* XX (April, May, 1929), 167-179, 229-239.

[5] Mary Hall, "The Use of the Cartoon in the History Courses," *Historical Outlook,* XXII (October, 1931), 291-292.

[6] J. L. Pingrey, "A Home Made Museum," *Historical Outlook,* XXI (October, 1930), 266-267; R. Colbert, "High School History Museum," *Historical Outlook,* XVIII (November, 1927), 329-330.

[7] C. L. Ross, "The Value of Pictures in Teaching History," *Journal of Educational Research,* XVII (February, 1928), 113-116.

Social Studies Teachers' Organization

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Since the Commission on the Teaching of the Social Studies of the American Historical Association laid considerable emphasis on the teacher as a factor in progress in the social studies field, much interest has developed in professional associations of social studies teachers. A committee of the National Council for the Social Studies made an attempt to study these associations. Requests for information were sent to thirty-four states, and replies were received from forty-three organizations in twenty-four states (Alabama, Arizona, Arkansas, California, Colorado, Connecticut, Indiana, Iowa, Louisiana, Maine, Maryland, Massachusetts Michigan, Minnesota, Missouri, Nebraska, New Jersey, New York, North Carolina, Ohio, Oklahoma, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, and Wisconsin).

How Social Studies Teachers Organize

For the purpose of this report the organizations will be considered separately. In any given community, however, a teacher may belong to only one association or several. A teacher in Charleroi, Pennsylvania, may belong only to the Social Studies Section of the Western District of Pennsylvania, while a teacher in Minneapolis may belong to a local history club, the Social Studies Department of the Minnesota Education Association, and the Minnesota Council for the Social Studies.

There are many city organizations of social studies teachers; some independent, such as the Metropolitan Detroit Social Studies Club, the Chicago Civic Teachers Club, the Newcastle (Pennsylvania) Social Studies Council, and the Upper Grades Social Studies Council of Cincinnati; and some a part of a state organization, such as the "chapters" of the Minnesota Council for the Social Studies and the "districts" of the Missouri Council for the Social Studies. The Metropolitan Detroit Social Studies Club has five meetings a year with nationally known speakers and has a quarterly publication, the *Social Studies Bulletin.*

Several organizations larger than a metropolitan area but less than state area are found. In the East Bay region of California there are two such groups. One is made up of four schools in a portion of a county (South Alameda County) and one made up of schools in two counties. The Lower Hudson Valley History Teachers Association, founded in 1924, includes six counties in southeastern New York. It has been quite active, and has had committees working on curriculum revision for two years. Perhaps the oldest and most active of the organizations made up of less than a state area is the Southern California Social Studies Association. Three conferences are held each year, a quarterly magazine is published, and a continuing administration is provided.

In many other states there are organizations of less than state area, but they are divisions of the state association which does not have a general, statewide, meeting. These states are California, Colorado, Idaho, Michigan, Nebraska, New York, Ohio, Pennsylvania, and Tennessee. In California the state law sets the time and place for the Institute programs, and officers are chosen from the paid membership. In Michigan the districts have meetings of all members of the Michigan Educational Association, and the members of the social studies sections have one session. There are no dues and the members choose their officers to provide the meeting for the following year. Ohio and Maine differ in that the officers of the social studies section are appointed by the executive secretary of the state teachers association.

In most states (Arizona, Arkansas, Connecticut, Florida, Iowa, Kentucky, Louisiana, Maine, Maryland, Minnesota, Missouri, Mississippi, New Jersey, North Dakota, Oklahoma, Oregon, South Dakota, Texas, Utah, and West Virginia) the organization of social studies teachers is a section of the state teachers association and has a state-wide annual meeting. In most states this is the only meeting. These are often stimulating, but occasionally, merely perfunctory sessions sparsely attended.

The two regional associations have a long history. The New England History Teachers Association is the oldest, but the Middle States Association of History Teachers[1] has the largest active publication record in its *Proceedings*, issued annually for more than thirty years. The Middle States group holds two regular meetings a year, and coöperates with other groups in different ways. The Council includes its officers, representatives from various regions, and past officers. It maintains an affiliation with state and city organizations and draws on them for Council members and for program personnel.

The New England History Teachers Association, organized in 1897, holds two meetings a year. It has published courses of study; a recent revision has just been printed by D. C. Heath and Co. The Association is directed by a Council made up of the three officers and four council members chosen for two year terms, two elected each year. It provides for a state group in Connecticut, and has arranged a plan of joint finance.

The Mississippi Valley Historical Association, although primarily an organization of college and university teachers, has a teachers' section which presents, during the annual meeting, a session devoted to teachers problems. In 1934 its program was presented in coöperation with the Social Studies Department of the Missouri State Teachers' Association (now the Missouri Council for the Social Studies), and in 1935 it was a joint meeting with the National Council for the Social Studies.

What the Social Studies Organizations Do

Most state educational organizations divide into subject groups for at least one meeting. Where the officers of the state social studies group meet but once a year, have (as is usual) no funds for postage and stationery, and have no especially interested persons, the group is usually not active. One of the most adverse comments on such a set-up came from a member of an organization whose officers are not even elected by it, but appointed by the executive secretary of the state educational association. He said, "These social studies groups are worth very little to the teachers, except when occasionally an outstanding speaker provokes us to unexpected thought. I think I express the sentiments of most of the younger men social studies teachers when I say that we do not depend upon them at all for leadership and stimulation."

The usual procedure in such organizations is that a nominating committee is appointed at the beginning of the session. An hour or two later this committee moves the election of the nominated slate of president, vice-president, and secretary. For ten or eleven months the group is somnolent, coming to life in time for the president to determine the program for the coming session. Often the secretary of the state educational organization determines the program by offering one of the speakers from the main program personnel. In such a case the president chooses a panel or discussion leaders to carry the discussion on for the specified time. At the end of the program the group, or those who are left, go into a business meeting where the nominating committee, which was appointed some two hours before, reports a new slate of officers. The meeting is then adjourned for another twelve months.

With active leadership this program is likely to be expanded. The Iowa Society of Social Science Teachers has three meetings during the sessions of the Iowa State Teachers' Association. On the first day of the Association meeting the group has a section meeting, on the second day it has a round table, and during one of the days it has a dinner or luncheon at which the president's address is given and regular business transacted.

A single session may be motivated to be of interest and value to the teachers attending. The social studies group of the Eastern District of Pennsylvania appointed a standing committee of five social studies teachers to motivate their annual meeting. The social studies group of the North Central District of Pennsylvania increased its membership 100 per cent in the last three years "because of careful planning of programs and the use of vital topics."

An example of a live program in connection with a state teachers' association meeting was the spring meeting (1935) of the Social Studies Department of

the Alabama Educational Association. A bulletin was sent to teachers ten days before the annual meeting explaining the program and the objectives to be attained. Local speakers who were nationally known gave a live program with a real application to current teaching problems.

Supplementary programs are provided in several states. The History Teachers' Association of Maryland has two meetings a year in addition to the meeting with the state teachers' association. One is an independent meeting and one is in coöperation with the League of Nations Association. The Connecticut Division of the New England History Teachers' Association, in addition to the meeting with the state association, holds an independent spring meeting. The Rhode Island Association of Teachers of Social Studies has at least one supplementary meeting each year, usually at Brown University. The Social Studies Section of the Wisconsin State Teachers' Association has held an annual spring conference since 1929 in addition to the meetings with the state association. The Minnesota Council for the Social Studies has a conference in the spring in connection with the Schoolmen's Week program of the University of Minnesota. The Missouri Council for the Social Studies has a regular independent spring meeting, and coöperates with other groups in arranging other supplementary meetings.

An active group on the eastern shore of San Francisco Bay has been carrying on a stimulating program, has provided many social and cultural contacts, and distributes a summary of the discussion at one of their meetings. No continuing program is provided for, but the energy and professional intelligence of the officers have provided a worthwhile activity.

Most of the organizations make no attempt to "follow-up" the meeting (or meetings) by continuing a study of the problems discussed. The four organizations referred to below have an opportunity to prepare the members for the meetings and to continue the program through the publication. Others who make some attempt at follow-up are the Social Studies Department of the Alabama Educations Association and the East Bay (California) Social Science Association, who distribute summaries of meetings.

The Minnesota and Missouri groups are the only state groups who are attempting to mould the state course of study along lines indicated by the Commission. A state committee and district committees are attempting to organize curriculum thinking in Missouri. The New England History Teachers' Association directly affects courses of study. It has made courses available to members for some years. The Lower Hudson Valley History Teachers' Association is working on curriculum problems.

It seems that more permanent organizations have (1) a slower changing administrative personnel; (2) a program planned in terms of cumulative professional activity; and (3) a publication. Four outstanding groups are the Metropolitan Detroit Social Studies Club, the Southern California Social Studies Association, the Minnesota Council for the Social Studies, and the Missouri Council for the Social Studies.

These groups use different devices for having a slow changing administrative personnel. The Detroit and Minnesota groups have one person who acts as a locus and who is in a relatively permanent position of leadership. Mr. C. C. Barnes, Head of the Department of Social Studies in the Detroit schools, acts as leader and coördinator of the Metropolitan Detroit Social Studies Club. The constitution of the Minnesota Council for the Social Studies provides that "the secretary-treasurer of the Council shall be the professor of the teaching of the social studies in the University of Minnesota." His responsibilities are specified in the same document: "He shall issue such bulletins, pamphlets, and materials as will promote the purpose of the Council. He shall preside over meetings or sessions of the Council in the absence or in case of inability of the president. He shall call such meetings and sessions of the Council as the executive committee shall direct, and shall arrange the program for the annual meeting."

The other two groups provide for a more permanent organization by having certain officers chosen for more than one year. The Southern California Social Science Association provides for the president remaining on the Advisory Board for one year after his term of office. In addition the members of the Advisory Board hold office for four years, one being elected each year. The Missouri Council for the Social Studies has the same plan for the retention of the president for one more year, but has its Board of Control members chosen for two years, two each year. Continuity of organization is also provided by the members of the nominating committee being chosen for three year terms, one chosen each year.

The programs of all four of these groups have two phases: the "session" program and the "publication" program. One is oral, one is read; one is available only to those actually present at the session, one is available to all on the mailing list of the publication. In two groups, the Metropolitan Detroit Social Studies Club and the Minnesota Council for the Social Studies, one person plans both programs. In the other two, the Southern California Social Science Association and the Missouri Council for the Social Studies, different persons are responsible for the two programs, the president being responsible for the "session" program, and the editor for the "publication" program.

The Detroit Social Studies Club has four or five sessions a year, some of special interest to social

studies teachers and some of more popular interest. The 1934-35 program included Dr. Bernard Fay, Dr. Howard E. Wilson, and Mark Sullivan. A trip through Greenfield Village was also arranged. The publication program provides for regular stimulation of all elementary and secondary teachers by having contributions from members of the organization on the philosophy of the social studies, news items of interest to members, and material on specific projects and problems as seen by classroom teachers.

The Southern California Social Science Association holds three conferences a year. The Fall Conference held in October is made up of three sessions: morning section meetings, a business meeting and a luncheon meeting. There are five sections: (1) World Affairs—International Relations; (2) Sociology—Economics—Political Science; (3) Curriculum and Curriculum Revision; (4) The Teaching of Geography; and (5) Books and Magazines, each with one to three speakers, and all meeting at the same time. The business meeting has a definite agenda. The luncheon program has an entertainment and an attractive address. The Institute program in December is a luncheon meeting with an outstanding speaker.

The publication program of the Southern California group is the most pretentious of all the publication programs because of the available space in their periodical. Discussions of problems, descriptions of projects, bibliographies, and news items relating to members are included. Outstanding are the president's page, the section on books, and a section on current magazines which covers many not usually read by social studies teachers.

The Missouri Council for the Social Studies has planned its meetings on the conference idea since leaving the annual luncheon program type of meeting. Its spring, 1934, meeting was a conference on "How to Teach the Social Studies," led by three classroom teachers. The autumn, 1934, conference had two sessions, one on Civic Education, led by an anti-Pendergast political worker, a Jesuit priest, and a progressive classroom teacher; and one on the implications of the *Conclusions and Recommendations*, led by Dr. A. C. Krey and participated in by ten of the leading teachers and scholars of the state. The spring, 1935, conference was on "Revising the Course of Study in the Light of the Report of the Commission on the Social Studies." The fall, 1935, conference was a progress report and discussion by the Committee on Curriculum.

The publication program of the Missouri group has been experimental, members of the *Missouri Social Studies Bulletin* touching on different topics which were thought to be of interest to social studies teachers. Numbers have dealt with civic education, research by Missouri teachers, classroom practices, digests of sessions at annual meetings, reorganization of social studies programs in Missouri, in addition to book reviews, news items, and summaries of social studies teachers meetings. The April, 1935, issue prepared the teachers of the state for the annual spring meeting by publishing data organized in charts and graphs on the status of social studies teaching in the high schools of Missouri. The May, 1935, issue served as a follow-up by giving the teachers a summary of the conference and indicating the next steps in the program of the Missouri Council. This same plan was followed for the fall, 1935, meetings.

The Minnesota Council for the Social Studies, organized in November, 1934, held its first meetings in April, 1935. One conference on curriculum revision, one on problems of teaching, and one on the activities of the Minnesota Council and the National Council indicate the broad "session" program of this group.

The "publication" program, under the direction of Dr. Edgar B. Wesley of the University of Minnesota, is concerned with the improvement of the teaching of social studies. It announced meetings, summarized their discussions, included bibliographies on many subjects, reviewed textbooks and reference books, and presented a research study on the professional interests of social studies teachers in Minnesota.

An interesting publication program was inaugurated in Louisiana in 1930. The Social Studies Department of the Louisiana Teachers' Association took over the October issue of the *Journal of the Louisiana Teachers' Association* in 1930 and 1931, and all the articles were contributed by social studies teachers. In 1931 a new executive secretary of the LTA came into office and began the policy of having each issue contain a section for each department. Since then the sections have been dropped and articles are published without regard for subject classification.

While most social studies organizations are open to all teachers of social studies, they are made up largely of secondary school teachers. Exceptions are the Metropolitan Detroit Social Studies Club and the Social Studies Group of the Upper Grades Study Council of Cincinnati. College and university teachers are usually among the active members of state organizations.

Most state organizations have no dues and receive nothing from the state educational associations except an occasional speaker from the general program. Exceptions are Alabama, New York, and Wisconsin, which make an amount regularly available for speakers on the social studies sectional programs. In isolated instances a fortunate or aggressive person may obtain an amount for some program. Where the organizations have dues, the funds are usually spent for general expense. In some cases a publication is provided, and in some, funds are used to obtain speakers. Dues range from twenty-five cents (Iowa

Society of Social Science Teachers, Minnesota Council for the Social Studies, and Minnesota Council of the National Council of Geography Teachers) and thirty-five cents (Social Studies Section of the Wisconsin State Teachers' Association), to fifty cents (Social Studies Department of the Alabama Educational Association, History Teachers Association of Maryland, Missouri Council for the Social Studies, New Jersey Association of Teachers of Social Studies, and Rhode Island Association of teachers of Social Studies) and one dollar (Central California Social Science Association, Southern California Social Science Association, New England History Teachers Association, Metropolitan Detroit Social Studies Club, and Middle States Association of History and Social Science Teachers).

Social Studies Organizations Are Growing

As the Committee has studied the organizations of social studies teachers it has seen the picture change as it has viewed it. It saw the creation of the Minnesota Council for the Social Studies and the Missouri Council for the Social Studies. Under its eyes the Detroit History Club became the Metropolitan Detroit Social Studies Club. Alabama and Michigan teachers requested information on ways of organizing strong state organizations.

A healthy growth is in progress, stimulated by the professional leadership of the larger organizations and developing out of a new consciousness in the classroom teacher of his responsibilities and his opportunities.

[1] The name has been changed recently to the Middle States Association of History and Social Science Teachers.

The Use of Current Events Magazines

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The teacher who ponders the use of a newspaper or magazine for the study of current history must naturally give thought to the objectives of such a study. Why is current history, or current events, to have a place in the curriculum and what kind of place is it to occupy? What educational benefit is anticipated from the use of a periodical in the classroom?

A good many answers have been given to these questions. A number of years ago, when current events was being introduced in the schools the subject was commonly regarded as a sort of mental relaxation. The current events period was not exactly a play hour, but it was inclined to be recreational —a pleasing diversion from the real and necessarily somewhat difficult and tiring job of teaching and studying history or civics. Pupils seemed to enjoy reading their current events paper. They liked to fix "events" in mind so that when the teacher called upon one of them for his "event," he could relate the facts concerning the happening with which he had become familiar. The teacher who gave too much time to such diversion, even though in itself considered harmless, would have been subject to criticism, for after all the real work of the school could not be neglected; but a period a week, or at least part of a period, came to be considered not excessive.

In due time current history or "current events" as it is commonly called, gained in dignity and appreciation. The World War and its aftermath of overwhelming public problems, domestic and international, brought the world to the doors of the classroom. They stirred the interests of people everywhere in the larger questions of the public life. This growing interest in a hitherto neglected contemporary world seemed to justify increasing attention to current problems in the schools, and one of the significant educational developments of the post-war period has been the rising tide of current history study.

In many cases this study is still conducted somewhat apologetically. Current events still remains in most school systems as an adjunct to the social studies courses. It may be justified on the ground that it vitalizes the study of history, lends interest to the regular work of the social studies courses by tying the past to the present. It is justified on the ground of its cultural contribution, for all agree that one's interests are broadened if he becomes familiar with a wide variety of current happenings and opinions. Probably in a majority of systems current history is a sort of after-thought, an educational luxury, indulged in during good times and omitted during depression.

But now educators have become aware of another great crisis through which democracy must pass. They, and everyone else, look upon a world in which democracy is struggling for survival against forms of government and society which claim to be more efficient. The permanence of conditions and institutions which throughout our history have seemed precious to us is seen to depend upon the growing competence of the American people, through democratic processes, to deal adequately with tremendously important but distressingly complex social, economic, political and international problems. And now that all this is understood, there is a growing disposition to make the study of current problems, current issues and current political practices a vital function of the school, with an independent and respected place in the curriculum.

But whether the work in current history is carried on in connection with a history or civics class, as it is in most cases, or whether it is conducted independently, increasing numbers of teachers are using the time devoted to this subject in a serious effort to promote an understanding of the great problems and issues with which American citizens must deal. In as much as the work in current history is taken seriously and is to be pursued consistently and systematically these teachers are conducting the study through the use of texts. The texts take the form of newspapers or magazines prepared especially for classroom use. It is the use of such texts that I wish to discuss and shall therefore submit a number of suggestions.

The first suggestion is that the teacher may use a current history periodical as a means of systematizing the study of current problems and issues. A teacher who decides to devote time to the contemporary scene may assume at first that he can dispense with that service. If one wishes to study the news and the issues of the day, he may ask, why not go to the daily newspapers together with the generally circulating adult magazines, and also to books of the day? Why not have the students study current events by using the current materials which the adult would use if he were to engage in such a study?

There is much to be said for that position, and I dare say that in exceptional cases such a method of studying current events may be successfully pursued. But it is open to the objection which may be made against the exclusive use of source materials in any other high school course. It is possible, no doubt, for the history teacher of superior training and unflagging energy to teach a course in American history without a text. There are plenty of sources to be used. One could have the students go to the papers, letters, newspapers, biographies and other materials dealing with each period. But would the result be satisfactory? Would not essential facts and principles be missed? Would not much of the material be too difficult and too involved? Would not much of it be false or prejudiced or would it not deal so inadequately with the subjects under consideration as to produce misunderstanding? Would the students who used source materials exclusively obtain a clear, consistent picture of our unfolding national history? Most teachers of history think not. They have, therefore, usually followed the plan of placing in the hands of the student a guide or text covering the main points of history, and the teachers have supplemented the text by assignments of outside reading in important source materials.

The same essential reasons for this choice underlie the choice of the text method in the study of current history. If the students rely wholly on newspapers, magazines and current books, their gleanings are likely to be fragmentary. They will get quite a little on a few points and will miss others. They will have no definite picture of the unfolding drama of events. And they are likely to be misled by propaganda, or by partial or opinionated presentations. Furthermore the work of organizing such materials so that they might serve the needs of a class are almost beyond the powers of the most energetic teacher. Those, therefore, who believe in the text method in current history, argue that the teacher should permit the text which is chosen to do the organizing and systematizing. It may be expected to choose the most important current problems for exposition, to supply the historical, economic and social backgrounds necessary to an understanding of current happenings and to set before the reader a fair statement of conflicting points of view. It may also be expected to serve as a guide to further reading. In this way it performs the guiding function which the energetic teacher has in mind. It sets the students to reading over a wide field. In addition it has given the students a common body of knowledge. It has furnished a setting, a background against which their work is to be done.

We are assuming, of course, that the editors of the current history text are both honest and competent; and that, in addition, they have as their object the presentation of fact accurately and of opinion impartially. If the text is not objective it is worse than useless. It is distinctly harmful, just as teaching of an opinionated instructor is. The daily newspapers have their editorial policies. So do the adult magazines. Nearly all current publications are, openly or covertly, organs of opinion. But the periodical which is written exclusively for school use and which is to serve as a text, cannot have an editorial policy with respect to controversial issues. It can and should have an educational policy, but that policy must include a determination to present its news and interpretations so as to play fair with forces of opinion which are in disagreement, and so as to encourage readers

to be independent, to look freely for facts, to form their judgments in the light of reason. That should be the objective of both teachers and texts when in controversial fields. The reason for this attitude of objectivity is not that the teacher and text must shield themselves from criticism. The reason is that indoctrination is poor teaching. The object of civic education is not to build a new social order according to any blue print in the mind of teacher or editor. It is to encourage clear, independent, informed thinking, which will enable the student, the citizen, to stand on his own feet and choose truth rather than error, wisdom rather than folly, and statesmanship rather than demagoguery, stupidity or crafty deception. The object is to give the young citizen a training in fact finding and opinion forming which will serve him long after the guiding hand extended in the classroom has been removed.

But this does not mean in any way that the teacher should ask the paper which he chooses as a current history text to avoid the controversial issues of the day. He can ask it to be fair, objective and impartial but he must not ask it to pussy-foot by pretending not to see the vital issues which divide the population. If young people are ever to learn how to deal wisely with issues, they should begin their training in the classroom. Where else are they to gain practice in the thoughtful consideration of questions upon which popular feeling is high? Are they to learn it on the street corners? Are they to gain the information upon which they are to depend in forming their judgments from the partisan press? Will they learn how to form sane and balanced judgments from such quarters? Or may they expect a more scientific treatment of controversial questions in the school? May they not there, as nowhere else, gain practice in reasonableness and thoughtfulness? The teachers and editors of America should stand together in the firm determination that young Americans shall not finish their school work in ignorance of the great issues of the day. The more controversial issues are, the more essential it is that in the quiet, scholarly, impartial atmosphere of the classroom, the facts relating to these controversial questions may be obtained fairly and that conflicting opinions may be studied candidly and without intimidation. The notion, accepted in some quarters, that young Americans should not have the opportunity to examine unpopular points of view in the classroom, and should learn of these things only from prejudiced sources or through subterranean channels of propaganda, is so silly as to merit universal condemnation. The tasks ahead of citizens of democratic nations are trying and difficult. The way ahead is so beset by dangers that citizens must not be put upon the road blindfolded by ignorance.

The current history work is not concerned wholly, or even chiefly, with controversial questions. Largely the time is spent in dealing with problems which are coming before the public attention, but which, for the moment, are not matters of definite dispute. The periodical which is used as a current events text will give space to the events and developments of the day. Its treatment will be factual. It will naturally carry articles on these problems. One such problem, to take a single illustration from a long list, is that of housing. No study of contemporary America could be made without giving thought to that problem. The student of present-day America will want first to know the facts. He will want to know how the people of the nation are housed. How many live in quarters which are unsanitary, uncomfortable or ugly? What is the effect of their deprivation on health, morals, education, cultural development, happiness? Are the families which are poorly housed unable financially to afford better quarters? Can private industry supply cheaper houses with profit to itself? If not, what are the arguments in favor of some sort of government subsidy in the form of cheap housing? Is it as appropriate to subsidize housing as to subsidize a merchant marine or is it not? What adverse effects upon the private building industry and its employees might be anticipated as a result of widespread governmental housing? Would ill-effects in that direction offset such gains as might result through the guarantee of better homes to the poor?

Such questions as have been stated might be answered in a book on social and economic problems, for the conditions to which reference has been made do not change quickly and the facts outlined in a book written last year would, in general, be applicable today. But here are questions which could be answered only by a periodical text: What measures affecting the housing problem are today before Congress or the state legislature? What are some of the plans now being actively advocated for the amelioration of housing conditions? What are the leaders today in the movement for subsidized housing? What persons or organizations are fighting such a movement? How are economic and social forces involved, and how are they lined up? What position is taken by your Congressman or Senator? By the editor of your community?

The current history text cannot answer these last two questions, which are local in character, but it can describe the national forces which are at work and it can raise questions about the forces in each reader's community. It can bring the problem up-to-date; it can show its current status, and also can point out to the reader where he may apply his influence if he so desires one way or another. The periodical text can picture problems of the day in their truly moving, dynamic character as no book can do.

In dealing with the housing problem, as with every other problem, the periodical text may be expected to explain the facts relative to the current situation and to make clear the points at which there may be differences of opinion. Then it may be expected to furnish suggestions for further study, for one of its chief functions is to stimulate intelligent inquiry and wide reading. The well prepared citizen of tomorrow will be one who is ever widening his horizon and ever deepening his understanding. He will be one who is ever on the lookout for the best sources of information and opinion. The text which is used as the basis for the study of current history should make a definite and decisive contribution toward the development of such efficient citizenship. It should do its work on the reader of today in such a way as to make him the inquiring, reading, thinking citizen of tomorrow. It should start him today into habits of wider inquiry and reading; habits which are likely to be continued and which, if continued, will insure the adequacy of tomorrow's citizenship. This result can be achieved if the editors of the paper used as a text remember that it is not a final, static body of materials on any subject but a text in fact as well as name—a text which presents a useful set of facts, which points out issues, describes the nature of the controversies which come under consideration and then points the way to wider and fuller studies.

The result can be achieved if the editors of the paper look in this way upon their mission and if the teachers using the paper have the same idea of its function. The course which the teacher will adopt in handling the current history work will depend, naturally, upon the relative competence of his pupils. Certain members of every class will be ordinary in ability or even lower. Such students cannot do much more than to cover the text, whether it is a text in chemistry, civics, or current events. They cannot be expected to do much outside work. In the case of the current events they may be expected to read the paper which has been chosen as a text. By reading it they acquire considerable information about current happenings and developments. They get a certain training in social thinking. They become to a degree galvanized against propaganda and special pleading. That is about all they can be expected to get out of it, but that should be enough to make them more intelligent followers when they assume the active duties of citizenship. It should enable them to choose their leaders more clear-headedly. But in every class there are superior students, capable of genuine leadership. They are the ones who should be assigned outside reading in current history—reading that will carry them over broad fields of fact and opinion. They are the ones in whom the habits of never-ending reading, thought and action may be encouraged.

In the building of such habits of reading and thought, however, the current history work, which might be such a tremendously important force, is handicapped by the fact of discontinuity. Pupils pursue their study of a current history text for a semester or a year, and during this period they are becoming schooled in habits of careful, candid and objective thinking on public problems. Then their course in history or civics, to which current history is appended, is finished. Thus their current affairs work stops. They may intend to go on with the reading they have been doing, but the pressures of other subjects are applied, and without the stimulation of the class, the teacher and the text, they slacken in their reading or give it up altogether. The great world, of course, moves on. The drama of national and world affairs unfolds. Tragedy, perhaps, approaches. Baffling problems, calling for the competent consideration of democratic citizenship, remain and multiply. But the very activities of the school soon choke the budding interests of the young citizen in the great drama, and they set obstacles in the way of the habits that were beginning to form and which were giving promise that he would indefinitely continue his civic education. At the risk, then, of being thought over-enthusiastic, or even of being a special pleader for a course in which I have a personal interest, I must affirm my conviction that the use of well selected current history materials should be continuous from the time the child enters school until the school doors close behind him.

One more word about the use of the current history text. If its use is to be fruitful it should be taken as a basis for free and open classroom discussion. The stimulating effects which have been described will not follow from current events recitations in which dependence is placed upon formal factual questions and answers. The students may be asked to be familiar with the facts which have been presented. The degree of their factual preparation may be determined by occasional brief and pointed tests. But the recitation must not be an exercise in testing. It should be more nearly a replica of the sort of free discussion one observes among a group of well informed and public spirited citizens. Students should be encouraged to tell what they think as well as what they know. The recitation should be an exercise in opinion building and opinion transmission. It should give practice in the technique of influencing public opinion. It should be a form of participation, in which students, who are also citizens, use the facts recently acquired in establishing their own attitudes and in the moulding of opinion. An educational course, making use of social facts and a wide variety of opinions, and encouraging the use of these materials by citizens bent on independent thinking, may contribute mightily to the development of civic intelligence and political efficiency.

Music and the Social Studies

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There are two situations in which music may be used to great advantage in the field of the social studies. The first occurs when the teacher of the social studies is also interested in music. He will find rising naturally to his attention forms of musical art that will supplement his teaching and enrich it in many unique ways. The second, and more common situation develops when the teacher of social studies is himself only slightly acquainted with music, but is willing to turn over some of his class time to an enthusiastic and inventive music teacher.

I have worked in both situations, and I do not think that either has a great advantage over the other. The more satisfying correlation of materials probably comes when one teacher administers both the music and the social studies; but the educational experience for the child is probably more significant when another teacher enters the classroom with a new field of thought at his command, thus illustrating clearly that all subjects are related. In whichever situation a teacher may find himself, he can rest assured that there are great possibilities inherent in the use of music in many of his classes.

When one uses this art-form for long, he finds that there are two fundamental uses to which it can be put, in so far as it relates to the study of history. The first of these occurs when the music is merely illustrative cultural material that will assist the student in obtaining a picture of some definite geographical entity, or some definite historical period of man's development. This is, of course, the basic use of music in the field of the social studies. In studying Russia, for example, I have always tried to use Moussorgsky's "Pictures at an Exhibition," excerpts from "Boris Godounov," and "A Night on the Bare Mountain." Rimsky-Korsakoff's "Russian Easter" is almost perfect as an illustrative work describing sociological conditions in Russia. Similarly, Borodin's "On the Steppes of Central Asia" will give a view of the great sweep of Russian peasant life, and Tschaikowsky's sure-fire "1812 Overture" and "Marche Slav" will always be enjoyed by students of high school age.

Thus each country has its own peculiar forms of music—forms which will contribute to making that country real. There is in music, something elemental, something belonging definitely to place and national culture. Sibelius, Brahms, Cesar Franck, Smetana, Ferdie Grofe, Delius, Strauss, and de Falla are all perfect examples of composers whose works bear indelibly the stamp of their nation. I sometimes feel that it is more important for students to meet with these men than with another book on a foreign country. I have found that the students with whom I come in contact are able to comprehend the most delicate colors of this type of music. At first I limited myself to excerpts impossible of failure, such as the works of Strauss and Tschaikowsky. I had been teaching something of the geography of Italy preparatory to a unit on the unification. I discovered that more than half of the class did not know the difference between Venice and Vienna. I happened to have at hand Strauss' "The Artist's Life" which I played for the group. Then we heard "Tale from a Vienna Woods." Finally a girl discovered the similarity between this work and the "Blue Danube," and with that as a basis, we proceeded to fix firmly the difference between the two cities, each of which was to be important in the next few weeks.

After class several students conveyed their appreciation of this type of illustrative material. As a result I was encouraged to use more of it, and with the help of the music teacher, I was able to find materials for most of the countries we dealt with. After that experience, I have almost come to the conclusion that it is foolish to try to give students any idea of what the Baltic provinces are like if one does not use the music of Sibelius. As soon as a teacher admits to himself that one of his foremost objectives in dealing with Europe is to convey to the student a tangible feeling for the widely varied types of life existing there, then he is almost obligated to spend some of his classroom time with the music of Europe.

Similarly, much of the world's greatest music typifies precise periods of man's historical development. A large percentage of the operas deal with the cultural periods most often taught in high schools. If teachers in progressive schools are serious in their attempts to give students the best of a few periods rather than everything of all the periods, then the great field of story-music should be used in the classroom. The first indication I received of the richness of this field came when some students told me that "The Sorcerer's Apprentice" was a story about science in the Middle Ages. A splendid music teacher had seen fit to tell them this, hoping that it would be

of value to them in other classes. "Till Eulenspiegel" is an even better story of the Middle Ages, and as we later learned, "Faust" is not merely a picture of the Middle Ages—it is that period. Yet for years we have tried to inculcate into the teaching of our history some vague idea of what the period was like, and at the same time we have failed to use "Parsifal," "Lohengrin," "Tristan und Isolde," and "William Tell."

Today, however, these operas are being broadcast by radio throughout the year, and teachers can direct their students to these perfect examples of historical documents. In many of the progressive schools excerpts or even entire operas are available. These can well be used once in two weeks as a welcome break in classroom routine. Their instructional value is very high.

In the same way almost every period that one wishes to study has some opera or some bit of program music that students can understand and enjoy. The period of the Renaissance is amply covered by such works as "Rigoletto," "Boris Godounov," "Falstaff," "Lucia di Lammermoor," and "Il Trovatore." I have used excerpts from these operas from time to time, and have found them quite useful in building up a feeling for the period under discussion. In the modern period one may use Stravinsky's easier works, good orchestrations by Paul Whiteman, some torrid music by our colored bands, and rich swing music of the moderns. There is no reason why music, which is certainly a profound part of any national or cultural development, should be ignored in social studies.

The second fundamental way in which music may be used is less easily administered but, I think, much more valuable than the merely illustrative use that I have just been discussing. Music is a very powerful assistant in discussing deep-rooted social problems. It is in this field, I believe, that the best work will be done in the next few years as far as the interrelation of music and the social studies is concerned. Many of the most trying modern problems can be illustrated by forms of music. In dealing with the question of economic repression we should use the great songs of the negro, or the folk songs of the north countries, or the sentimental ballads of the mountaineer. Repression has called these things forth, and they are part of the human experience, oftentimes the most poignant part. War, invasion, tyranny, urban versus rural life, the machine age, the jazz age, the problems of religion—all these things can be marvelously illustrated with music, ranging from the very greatest opera down to the current sob-ballad that will last a month at the most.

Another method of using music as sociological material consists of playing unnamed phonograph records to the class, telling the students only that the composer, like all great men, was deeply worried about some fundamental social problem when he wrote this music. The students are to listen attentively as the music is played three or four times; then they are to express in either simple or imaginative prose the conflicts that have been presented in this music. I have experimented with this type of work for the past two years. I have used classes of the tenth, eleventh, and twelfth levels, students both advanced and retarded, both enthusiastic and suspicious. The results have been much finer than I had any right to expect. I have always turned the papers over either to the music teacher, another social studies teacher or an English teacher for comment, and each of these participants in the experiment has expressed surprise at the maturity of expression.

I am careful to choose music of a dramatic nature. It is best to start with vocal music. Verdi's works are splendid if care is taken in selecting passages that are not too confused. Verdi tends to utilize basic emotional problems, so that a student with an average imagination can sense the struggle developing between the individuals. Parts of the works of Wagner, particularly the mystical selections, are fine for this type of work. Arrigo Boito has supplied several selections that have been most productive. The older spirituals have sometimes surpassed even Verdi and Wagner in the excellence of the responses they have called forth.

In time it is easy to introduce purely orchestral music, if care is taken in seeing that it is dramatic and expressive. The best selection I have ever used in this type of work is Borodin's "On the Steppes of Central Asia." The responses were so vigorous, so attuned to the music that I wondered if the children could have been informed of its contents before I presented the music to them.

In administering musical excerpts dealing with social problems the teacher will have to decide how much suggestion he will give his students. After three or four times I offer no explanatory remarks. Occasionally it is profitable to say that the music is Russian, or Spanish. Sometimes I have identified the voices they are to hear. At other times I explain when the music was written, but for the most part these introductions are unnecessary. In all of this experimenting I have had to revise my opinions of adolescent ability. There seems to be no limit beyond which the youthful mind cannot project itself when inspired by magnificent thoughts. Time and again half the class has hit upon the precise idea held by the composer when he wrote. I have found that when a student, sitting in a classroom, listening to something he has never heard before, suddenly realizes that he is listening to the presentation of a terrible conclusion to a battle, the discovery in some way electrifies him into identifying himself with the

misery and the shame of war. Time and again I have had boys and girls tell me, long after a unit was completed, that they remembered the music as the best part of the whole study.

When introducing music into the social studies there are two ways of administering it: the social studies teacher may select and present the music, or the teacher of music may be called in to discuss and present the program. Music may be used in two ways: as illustrative cultural material or as psychological and sociological material. In the first use, the music refers principally to countries or to historical periods. In the second use, the music may be administered either as a definite expression of some deep-rooted problem, or as an unidentified expression which the students themselves are to identify in simple or imaginative prose. The principal value of music so used is that the student is invited, often times impelled, to project himself into foreign countries, past ages, or gripping situations. Music has this power of inviting self-projection because it is, above all else, one expression of the finest thought of any country or any period.

Meeting of the Middle States Association of History and Social Science Teachers

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The annual fall conference of history and social science teachers of the Middle States Association, held on November 20-21, 1936, in New York, was devoted to questions of teacher improvement and curricular adjustments. Representatives and members from half a dozen states and a dozen local associations took part in the two day session at Teachers College, Columbia University. Those who assembled from scattered communities both rural and urban were in closer accord than their diverse cares and concerns might lead one to expect. They accepted the sober reflection of wise observers that ours is a world in transition and that tremendous social changes impend. But they had no interest in prophesying society's destination. To them the pressing question was, "What should people know, do, and be, if progress in our democracy is to be helped rather than hindered?" This common slant of mind gave a unity to the various addresses and discussions.

Attention on Friday afternoon centered upon the topic, "The Professional Training and Continued Growth of Teachers." Professor Howard E. Wilson summarized the new Harvard plan of teacher training. This plan sprang in part from the fact that teaching, more than ever, is tied into the whole current of societal affairs and is a part of the social set up itself. The problems of society, therefore, furnish problems for those who train teachers. Nowhere is this more true than in training teachers of the social studies.

In teacher training schools the solution of these problems depends largely upon four factors. One of them is the changing character of the social studies field itself. History constantly changes, since change is characteristic of society. History now has broadened to include many non-political matters. College catalogs offer economic history, history of art, intellectual history, and the like. At the same time new subjects have taken a place beside their sister, history. Social geography, social psychology, sociology, and anthropology are a few examples of the expansion of the field. In fact, this expansion has been so rapid that only slight correlation and adjustment among its many parts have taken place. The college catalogs set before prospective teachers a cafeteria-like offering of courses. It is not easy to know what is a balanced diet in training for social studies teaching.

A second factor which concerns those who train teachers is the spreading practice of requiring teachers to take part in making courses of study. Formerly national committees suggested them, like the Committee of Seven in 1899 and the Committee of Eight in 1911. Now individual schools work out new courses, new arrangements, and new curricula. Class-

room teachers serve on hundreds of curriculum committees throughout the nation. Theirs is no easy job. How can teachers be trained to be good curriculum builders? Will our cafeteria-like diet for teacher training insure the construction of a balanced diet in the curriculum for children? In any case, if teachers take a hand in designing curricula they must have both breadth and concentration in subject matter, must know objectives, must understand the learner and learning, must see the whole sweep of the school years, and must be acquainted with the needs and trends of modern society.

Closely related to the second factor is a third, which sets a problem for teacher training. Schools themselves are changing in the modern world, and they require teachers to recognize and adjust their teaching to these changes. In little more than a generation the high school population has been revolutionized in size, in character of pupil, in varieties of ability, and in needs and purposes. Heterogeneity is now characteristic of the high school population. It poses for teacher training such varied problems as those of relating the child to his job, of equipping him for the tasks of citizenship, and of fitting him into the changing relationships of a progressive society. It raises questions of social differences, of socializing youth, and of developing worthy leadership and adequate followership.

In the fourth place, while it assists in the attack upon such problems, there is another factor which raises problems of its own for teacher training. A new body of facts about the nature of the learner and the learning process must be made familiar to prospective teachers. Educational psychology, psychiatry, sociology, and kindred branches of knowledge have furnished data which are indispensable in the equipment of teachers. They must be familiar with such diverse matters as individual differences, the consequences of gland activity, the effects of noise upon organisms, the technique and uses of measurements, and the nature of the learning process.

How shall the problems presented by these four factors in teacher training be met? President Conant of Harvard has said that teachers commonly have been either holders of a degree in subject fields or graduates of schools of education. There existed an unwise separation of the content side of teacher training from the professional. This year Harvard University has undertaken to meet the problem described by President Conant. A new degree is offered, the degree of M.A. in Teaching. It has been placed under the special supervision of a board drawn from the faculties of Arts and Education. Only those who hold the baccalaureate degree and have concentrated upon the subjects they wish to teach are eligible to become candidates for the new degree. A year of resident work under the supervision of the new board is required. To receive the teaching degree candidates must pass three sets of examinations. The first is a group of examinations in five fields of education: educational philosophy, educational psychology, educational measurements, the issues of education today, and the principles of teaching, including practice teaching. The second consists of two professional examinations, one on curricula and curriculum making, the other on methods of teaching the student's specialty. To aid in his preparation for these seven examinations the university offers seven half-year courses. The third set of examinations covers the content field, for example, the field of history, government, and economics. This group has three parts, one examination being correlational of the subjects in the general content field, another being in the students' own field of history or government or economics, and the last being in the division within the subject upon which the student specialized, for example, finance or American history.

This new plan at Harvard is designed to meet the problems raised by the four factors already described as confronting those who train teachers today. But the university does not stop with this plan, nor does it regard its present arrangements as final. It recognizes the need for keeping in touch with classroom teachers for at least a few years after they have gone out to teach. Their training no less than their experience must attune them to the community in which they teach. They must not keep aloof from their communities, living as it were in a vacuum. Social studies teachers, perhaps even more than their colleagues, must know and be part of the society in which they live. The university, accordingly, shares in the responsibility for "in-service" training.

The two speakers who followed Professor Wilson supplemented his address by emphasizing teacher training on the college or undergraduate level and "in-service" training in the schools of the country. It is interesting to note that those who attended the luncheon preceding this afternoon meeting likewise viewed the problem as one not merely for schools of education but also for the school systems of the nation.

Miss Erma K. Rolar of the State Teachers College at Shippensburg, Pennsylvania, discussed trends in undergraduate training of teachers, with especial reference to social studies. Like Professor Wilson, Miss Rolar stressed the functional aspects of modern teacher training. Content courses not only present their materials, but they seek to show how to use them in the elementary and secondary schools. Methods courses no longer bear merely upon subject matter. They seek to relate the method of teaching to the pupil as well. Miss Rolar pointed out the need in teacher training for principles of teaching, psychology both of learning and of the learner on vari-

ous age levels, techniques of using and constructing instruments for educational measurements and experiment, curricular trends in the schools of today, as well as specific training for the social studies in the use of the historical method, of source materials, of libraries, of bibliographies, and of visual materials. The fruit of it all is found in the training school or laboratory for the beginning teacher where, like an interne, he puts into practice what he has learned about his profession.

Miss Mabel Skinner of the Washington Irving High School, New York City, took up the question of "in-service" training, calling attention particularly to the obstacles in the way of teacher growth. Professional growth has never been more essential. Why then have some teachers become retarded? Like other workers, teachers are exposed to occupational diseases peculiar to their calling. One such disease of teachers is their continuous state of irritation, of tenseness. It is caused by a multitude of petty detail, which ceaselessly clamors for attention—the endless tests, reports, meetings, clerical duties, and the like. The mass tends to become large enough to bury the teacher. It hinders her growth and may even develop in her a feeling of failure, provoking a state of fretfulness. Here is a veritable cancer in the profession.

Another disease is professional arrogance, which is encouraged by the nature of teaching. To deal, day in and day out, with immature minds results easily in a state of mind which is averse to listening to others; it "tells" others. The appearance of this attitude slackens, if it does not stop entirely, teacher growth.

Finally, a sense of futility is frequently aroused in teachers, which stunts their professional growth. The effect upon teachers is bad when they are called upon regularly to handle classes too large to deal with as professional conscience says they should be dealt with. If, also, the teacher is but an infinitesimal cog in a vast school system, the sense of futility is deepened. The conviction is apt to grow, in a world which is shifting so bewilderingly, that the training of children which is at best a difficult problem has become impossible under the circumstances. In the teaching profession today, fretfulness, arrogance, and futility are major ills which canker growth.

The fact of rapid change in today's world and the necessity of adapting teaching to it gave a slant of mind likewise to those entering into the discussion on Saturday morning on the topic of "Integration in School and College." Professor Horace Taylor of Columbia University sketched how Columbia College evolved its famous course called "Contemporary Civilization." It was a war baby, born of the course called "War Aims." Now, "Contemporary Civilization" gives freshmen and sophomores a knowledge of the society in which they live, showing them the problems in the complexity of our institutions and furnishing them with a background both for effective action in life and for making wise choices under the numerous perplexities of living today.

Professor Harold Rugg of Teachers College discussed the same problem, on the secondary school level, and reviewed how he and his associates have been working it out. To Dr. Rugg, also, a great need in our day is to comprehend our total culture, its nature and its trends. This requires an integration of all kinds of knowledge. Such thoughts as these, beginning in World War days, provoked Dr. Rugg to experiment with social studies courses in the Horace Mann School and in collaborating schools. The so-called fusion courses which resulted have been courses concerned less with subject matter and more with the uses of whatever matter was best to give youth a comprehension of this moving world into which they were thrust by birth. Dr. Rugg saw it as a problem in social engineering. Its solution is still uncertain, waiting upon developments in sociology, social psychology, measurements, and other social sciences still in their infancy.

The general discussions which followed the formal papers on Friday and Saturday diverged little from the unifying point of view that education's problems today are bound up with the problems of a changing social order. It was indicated that the universities have much to offer in this connection to teachers in service. Great stress was placed upon the necessity for teachers to seek every contact with the world about them, to seek experiences, like tourists, with ways of life and communities quite different from those known to teachers and their pupils, and thereby to enrich personality as well as knowledge and insight. A note of warning, however, was sounded by several who reminded the conference that preoccupation with social necessities and with securing adequate social understanding and knowledge must not interfere with a proper regard for child interests, child abilities, child purposes, and individual differences.

The addresses of Dr. Edward P. Cheyney, professor emeritus of the University of Pennsylvania on "Intellectual Freedom in a Democracy," and Professor Harry J. Carman of Columbia University on "The New Deal in Action," gave concrete application to the principal ideas expressed in the meetings already described. Dr. Cheyney spoke after the dinner on Friday evening at the Faculty Club. He warned teachers of the dangers which beset intellectual freedom in the world today. Only as long as general freedom reigns in the community will intellectual freedom survive. Democracy seems now to be on the defensive in the world, and freedom associated with democracy lies in jeopardy. The shadow of

dictatorship spreads. Most of Europe has moved into it. In democratic nations are heard the voices of those sympathetic to it. Pressure groups, through such instruments as the radio and the cinema, have unparalleled opportunities to reach vast numbers of people almost simultaneously. Mass impregnation of minds is at last possible. But with it has not come responsibility to give the masses the truth, the whole truth, and nothing but the truth. Everyone can name representatives of pressure groups who have said anything to the public which they fancied would aid their cause.

It happens in our day that most of these groups are concerned, at bottom, with economic problems. Probably the greatest resentment today is directed against those who criticize the institution of private property. Formerly, social disapproval laid most heavily upon those who criticized established religion; later it laid upon those who criticized established government. Now the resentment is most bitterly expressed in the economic sphere. Is this fact not an explanation in part of the amazing bitterness evident in several quarters in the last presidential campaign?

Teachers may well ponder the fact that people seem to be unthinking, despite the schools. It has long been the pride of schools that pupils are given practice in fair play, are led to desire freedom, and are trained in intellectual fairness and soundness of judgment. Can we be sure that the efforts of schools have been crowned with results commensurate with their hopes?

Intellectual freedom is but part of general freedom, and is dependent upon it. Intellectual freedom needs inquiring minds trained to think out fearlessly and to study the inquiries in the manner and in the way of the scientist. Unless such freedom is assured in the schools, such training is thwarted. Teachers must explain, but it is not their business to make up children's minds for them. That should be the fruit of free, fair, and full thought. The Declaration of Independence testifies that freedom becomes a man. Without it there can be no liberty. With it, society is in a position to get the greatest good for all citizens. In these days, when freedom is being seriously threatened, the challenge to teachers, as to all citizens of our democracy, is plain.

At the final luncheon meeting on Saturday, Professor Carman contrasted the depressed, more or less hopeless attitude of people during the height of unemployment in 1932 with the hopefulness and cheer evident in the summer of 1936. With all its faults and shortcomings the New Deal unquestionably has worked a revolution in the spirit of the American people in four years. It has done much to reveal weaknesses in our economic system and to strengthen them before they menaced the social welfare to the point of rebellion. At the same time, according to Professor Carman, the New Deal has not destroyed initiative and individuality, although anti-social forms of individuality have been discouraged. Our democratic forms have been found adequate to cope with our problems. This conclusion of Dr. Carman epitomizes the conviction of the conference.

Measuring Pupil Activity

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"Marginal learning should be considered when one measures progress," said the professor. I suddenly stopped my dreaming and looked at the other students in the seminar class in Education. It is needless to say that I felt guilty—I was guilty. I knew that my measuring stick for judging the accomplishments of the students in my history classes was woefully inaccurate. Since a guilty feeling is not a pleasant one I immediately forgot about the professor and his lecture and commenced to draft an accomplishment chart.

Just what did my history students do that could be considered of value? I began to jot down the activities.

1. They studied the textbook assignments.
2. They read many books from the library that might be classed as history or historical novels.
3. They read newspaper and magazine articles for information for special reports.
4. They worked on various projects.
5. They made original cartoons on current topics.

No examination could accurately measure these activities. My problem, then, was to make a chart that would measure them.

A knowledge of the text and of current events could be measured by objective tests so I planned for that on my chart. The books and special articles must be carefully evaluated so I made a list of all of the library books for which history credit could be given and placed a certain number of credit points after each title. Each student was given a mimeographed copy of the list. The special articles, reports, cartoons, and projects could be evaluated in terms of credits as they were completed. I placed all of these items on the chart and arranged them so that the student could compute his own grade at the end of each grading period. The chart, as I now use it, is shown below.

Each of my history students is given one of these charts at the beginning of each grading period. He keeps a record of all that he does and clips the book reports to the chart so that I may examine them. After he has computed the total number of history credits earned during the grading period and his chart has been approved we together arrange the scores from high to low and work out the report card grade and the rank in the class.

I find that this chart has stimulated reading more than has any other tool that I have ever used. The student wants to earn as many credits as possible and he finds that outside reading will help him earn these credits. Many of the students who had never before visited the library soon began to make regular trips there.

This accomplishment chart is far from being a finished product. I hope to improve it from time to time but I do feel that it has helped me to solve some of my history problems.

HISTORY ACCOMPLISHMENT CHART

NAME .....

QUIZ OR RECITATION GRADES	UNIT EXAMINATION GRADES
1.	1. .....
2.	2. .....
3.	3. .....
4.	
5.	
6.	
7.	
8.	
9.	
10.	
11.	
12.	
13.	
14.	
15.	
16.	
17.	
18.	
19.	
20.	

CREDIT READING		REPORTS, CARTOONS, ETC.	
Title of Book	*Credits*	*Title*	*Credits*
.....	.....	.....	.....
.....	.....	.....	.....
.....	.....	.....	.....

REPORT CARD GRADE

Quiz average .....
Quiz average .....
Exam. average .....
(divide by three) 3) .....
Add extra credits .....
Total score .....

Number in class .....
Rank in class .....

Continuity in High School Economics

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Effective presentation of a course in economics is one of the critical challenges of the high school curriculum. It means the adaptation to students barely entering the threshold of mental maturity of a heterogeneous collection of remote abstractions, pure logic, and objective data which even the most profound scholars have failed to systematize—satisfactorily.

The difficulty lies in the two distinct aspects of economics, the theoretical and applied, both of which are essentially dynamic and in a continual state of evolution. This is true of very few subjects of the high school curriculum. English, history, mathematics, language, science, the commercial studies—all involve a more or less permanently established and rigidly systematized body of material to be accepted by the student as prima facie evidence. Ordinarily, not until he enters college is the student called upon to exercise discrimination and to discard from his academic vocabulary the words "positive" and "arbitrary." This will have to be done earlier,

however, if economics is to be taught to twelfth graders, for the ever-changing, dynamic character of the study in both of its phases cannot be neglected.

Until a few years ago the theoretical aspect was predominant in the teaching of high school economics. Undoubtedly, concepts of marginal utility, marginal productivity, and other abstract theories of price formation and distribution gave to the course a certain unity, and a rough synthesis of such objective data as was offered. But to high school students they must have remained mere abstractions, which were learned, forgotten, and never understood. The limitations of theory were not grasped by immature minds, partially due to arbitrary presentation, and economics was learned as a rigid set of principles, fostering prejudices and prohibiting the assimilation of new and different, but equally valid, viewpoints.

Today the trend is to the opposite extreme. Just as current economic questions have supplanted the weather in popular conversation, so has applied economics forced its way into high school textbooks and teaching methods even to the point of disintegration. For the past few years the politico-economic situation has been arresting to an unprecedented degree, and its recognition by the schools is certainly justified. The unfortunate thing is that the unity of the course has been destroyed by concentration upon isolated and specific problems, and by neglect of the underlying forces which relate them to each other. The elementary course has become a study of current problems, by students unequipped with the economic perspective essential to their analysis. A few modern textbooks tend to further this breakdown by their overemphasis on current legislative policies and depression statistics.

Disunity and incoherence in the modern course become especially intolerable when it is realized that the chief justification of the study of economics is that it shall present the mechanism of the system as a whole and not merely in a few of its parts. The corner groceryman, immersed in the details of his retail business, interprets all economic phenomena in terms of their effect upon his particular line. The banker who is well versed in his own field must study economics to grasp the interdependence of all our economic institutions. Specialization is certainly essential, but it should follow a more general study of all economic life in its intricate relationships.

The importance of understanding the mutual reactions of all economic institutions cannot be overstressed in an age where governmental control is becoming ever more prominent. Half a century ago it mattered little that economics was the indulgence of the few, for those were the days when governments and the hoi polloi left public affairs to the automatic control of "free competition." Today, if we are to have a functioning democracy, it is essential that every young citizen be trained to analyze the effect upon all social classes of the economic legislation for which he will some day be partially responsible.

Continuity, then, and interrelationship, comprise the chief objective, but our task is still no easy one. All great economists have attempted to develop coherent systems synthesizing economic phenomena, but none of these are applicable to the high school course. This is obvious since the student must first be given an economic perspective with which to draw conclusions; and when that stage is reached, he should be confronted with a great variety of theories upon which to exercise his newly developed discriminative powers. The problem, therefore, is the stupendous one of going beyond theoretical systems, old and new, and unearthing something fundamental to them all. Having done this, it is still another matter to make this basic continuity intelligible to unorientated minds. Presumptuously, perhaps, I believe that it can be done.

The concept I would utilize may best be termed "balance of forces." It has long been latent in both sociological and economic theory, particularly under the name "equilibrium"; but as an approach to a grasp of the functioning of an entire system, its potentialities have been, for the most part, neglected.

Like all the social sciences, economics is the study of a number of forces in a definite relationship to each other, and the social order, or disorder, resulting therefrom. Consequently, the first step should be to give the student a grasp of the nature of the various economic relationships. A typical example is the factors of production and their respective contributions to the productive process. But this is only the beginning, for the all important aspect of economics is that these relationships constantly change and that economic conditions are dynamic. The student will be interested not in classifications, but in actual situations, and especially in conflicts and social disorder. In short, he will want to know, and should be told, what is wrong with the economic world.

The answer is not so simple or specific as those implied in the panacean proposals of Henry George or Dr. Townsend. Rather, it is to be found in the generalization that all forces tend to achieve a certain balance with each other, but because they all develop at varying paces, this balance is constantly being disturbed.

This fact may seem simple and obvious, but its significance is subtle and immensely complex. The simplest manner in which to grasp it is to postulate a hypothetical state in which there is no progress—a static condition with institutions, or factors within institutions, never changing relatively to each other. Here it is reasonable to assume that difficulties will not exist, for they would have been eliminated in the

very beginning. Perfect adjustment (or the most perfect possible under the circumstances) will hold sway.

But this hypothesis offends our credulity, we are so acutely aware that all life has within it the tendency to unfold, to develop, to change, to advance. It would be more in keeping, then, with our sense of logic to postulate a still hypothetical state in which everything moves, but at an exactly uniform pace—a movement en masse. Now where is disorder? Change has certainly occurred, but nothing has changed relatively to anything else. The adjustment made in the beginning is still maintained, and constant and automatic equilibrium holds forth.

But this is hypothesis! In reality we find that although every particle of life has within it the potentiality of development, each potentiality has its own dimensions. That is, every bit of life can unfold only to a certain extent and in a certain direction, and at a certain speed, and all of these extents and directions and speeds will vary. This means that all things are constantly changing relatively to each other. Now of course, it is in varying relationships that we find the meaning and significance of life, but it is also in varying relationships that we find its difficulties. For a moment's reflection will reveal that constant change of relationship means constant disorder, calling for readjustment. This disorder I term lack of balance between forces. We forever strive toward balance—we never attain it!

I believe that such a concept, *simply presented, constantly recalled,* and *concretely illustrated,* would be of immense value to the student in his appraisal of objective data. Not only does it reveal the real problems of economic life, but it points the direction of remedial action. Confronted with a multitude of monistic explanations of the depression, he could realize that they were all but different aspects of the same basic difficulty—lack of balance between forces. He would know that the solution involved the speeding up of those factors that lag, and the slowing down of certain factors with which others cannot keep pace.

The concept should help students pierce the veil of all panacean or Utopian proposals. Having seen that the problem was that of constant supervision and readjustment to keep step with perpetual change, they would realize that there can be no lasting cure-all.

Perhaps most important of all in this day of prejudices, the study of balance of forces should keep students on the middle path between conservatism and radicalism. They would understand that any plan for drastic social change would be immediately detrimental in disturbing the balance between economic institutions—more detrimental, in most cases, than the evil at which the reform was aimed. At the same time it would be apparent that conservatism, which does not even recognize the need for change, is perhaps equally disastrous to social balance.

Finally, students would be given that continuity which is so essential if economic data is to have any meaning for them. A happy union of theoretical with applied economics—that is the objective.

News and Comment

Anniversary of the Constitution

The celebration of the 150th Anniversary of the Constitution of the United States provides an opportunity for the public schools not only to study this historic and significant document, but to understand its application in national and international affairs and to pay tribute to those early American leaders who created it. The following announcement coming at this early date makes it possible to lay effective plans for the appropriate observance of this important anniversary:

> The ideas of celebration and education are united in the purposes for which Congress authorized the United States Constitution Sesquicentennial Commission and in the foundations upon which the Commission places its program. The Commission owes its existence to a joint resolution of Congress, August 23, 1935, and consists of the President, the Vice-President, and the Speaker of the House ex officio, five Senators, five Representatives, and five presidential members. The Honorable Sol Bloom of New York is the Director General. The plans call for a commemoration to extend from the 150th anniversary of the signing of the Constitution, September 17, 1937, to that of the inauguration of Washington as President, April 30, 1939. These two dates and June 21, 1938, the anniversary of New Hampshire's ninth and last necessary ratification, will be those of the main national observances; but it is

expected that the states and communities will hold special commemorations at other times. State commissions and local committees will control these, but the National Commission will stand by to coördinate, give suggestions, and furnish data and material. Various divisions of the staff of the Commission, such as those on publicity, men's and women's organizations, and special activities, will handle this phase of the Commission's work for the celebration of the Sesquicentennial.

The educational side of the Commission's plan may be summed up in its desire to make the people Constitution-conscious. It is, of course, expected that the various fêtes and special activities will promote this; but the main reliance will be through the work of the three divisions of education, library and history.

The program of the division of education is a complete one, covering students of all classes from the grade schools to colleges, and featuring declamations, essays, orations, journalistic articles, and creative writing in series of contests, as well as special courses of study, and a final "Every Pupil Constitution Test." Instruction of adults will also be featured. The library division will assist in supplementing the present collections of libraries, particularly for special needs through interlibrary loans. It will endeavor to keep libraries informed, and supply book lists and reading lists, both general and special, and suggest library exhibits. It will also be the agency for the distribution of facsimiles of the Constitution, Declaration of Independence, and a sheet of portraits and signatures of the Signers of the Constitution to libraries and schools, with plans for their proper display.

An important feature of the work of the history division will be that of editing for accuracy the publications made through the other divisions; and to serve as a bureau of information. This division will be the Commission's main instrument for research and documentation, with special emphasis upon the ratification contest. It is felt that "We the People" is the phrase upon which the task of the Commission hinges. In addition to making the people aware of the importance of the Constitution in their daily lives, it is hoped that thorough search of the surviving sources of the formative period may furnish students with better material for estimating the real attitude of the "common people," and the extent of their participation in the contest. Whether "We the People" was then only a phrase that was made the expression of an actuality by the Jeffersonian and Jacksonian democracies, or was a real force in the formation of the Constitution, may continue to be a question; but at least the importance of making available the evidences on the matter is unquestionable.

A copy of the Commission's *Report* on its program will be sent on application to the Director General Sol Bloom, Washington, D.C.

National Council for the Social Studies

The Sixteenth Annual Meeting of the National Council for the Social Studies was held in Detroit on November 27 and 28, 1936. Among the topics discussed were the following: "The Status and Progress of the Social Studies Curriculum"; "The Training of Social Studies Teachers"; and "Progressive Practices in Social Studies Teaching." The presidential address was delivered by the retiring president, R. O. Hughes on "Social Sanity through the Social Studies." Professor Elmer Ellis, closed the session with an inspiring message, "Looking Forward."

Progressive Education Association

The New York Regional Conference of the Progressive Education Association was held at the Hotel Pennsylvania, New York, November 13 and 14, 1936. The theme of the conference, "Democracy and Education," was particularly timely, especially in view of European trends and events. At the dinner meeting, Dr. John Dewey spoke on "The Meaning of Democracy for American Education." Other features in the program were the conducted tours to progressive classrooms and study discussions.

National Council of Geography Teachers

The annual meeting of the National Council of Geography Teachers was held in Syracuse, New York, Tuesday, December 29, and Wednesday, December 30, 1936. Headquarters and meetings were at the Hotel Syracuse. Among the papers read were the following: "Geography Requirements for State Certification of Teachers," by Isabelle Kingsbury Hart, Teachers College, Oswego, New York; "The Use of Standardized Tests," by Harry P. Smith, Syracuse University; and "Steps in Construction of the National Council Geography Tests," by Zoe Thralls, College of Education, University of Pittsburgh, and Marguerite Uttley, Department of Science, Iowa State Teachers College, Cedar Falls, Iowa. The geography of several regions, and phases of conservation were also discussed.

The National Council invites all geography teachers to attend its annual meetings in order to gain from its program help in subject matter and method, to share the inspiration which comes from a large group of men and women working together for a common

cause, and to contribute to the discussions and the plans for future work.

New York Junior High School Conference

The Thirteenth Annual New York Junior High School Conference will be held on March 12-13, 1937 at New York University. Details of the program will be made known shortly.

Radio Conference

The First National Conference on Educational Broadcasting was held at the Mayflower Hotel, Washington, D.C. on December 10, 11, and 12, 1936. Eighteen organizations interested in every important phase of American education sponsored the conference, in coöperation with the United States Office of Education and the Federal Communications Bureau.

The purpose of the meeting was to enable persons interested in educational broadcasting to discuss means by which the radio may become a more effective instrument for education, both formal and informal; to serve as a clearing house for information on the latest technical and professional developments in educational broadcasting; and to enable persons representing all phases of the subject to become acquainted and to exchange ideas and experiences.

Cleveland Course of Study

A "Tentative Outline" in mimeographed form has been issued recently by the Department of Social Studies, Cleveland Public Schools, for the ninth grade course in the social studies. The manual, which is intended for general guidance, contains many valuable suggestions and a variety of helpful alternatives prepared principally by a group of experienced teachers. This has been done in accordance with the recommendation of the Cleveland Board of Education Committee on Citizenship Training that "the best outlines for development and presentation of certain units worked out in the various buildings should be available for all." The outlines and suggestions are considered tentative and subject to improvement by the teachers who use them.

Motion Picture Review Digest

Now that the motion picture has taken a more definite place as a cultural and educational agency and a great many periodicals are offering review columns for current motion pictures, the need has arisen for a composite, impartial, authentic review of motion pictures in the interest of education. In response to this need, the library service of H. H. Wilson Company is issuing weekly a *Motion Picture Review Digest*. This publication carries reviews and previews of films as given currently in some forty publications. These publications from which the *Motion Picture Review Digest* is compiled, include general newspapers, exhibitors' journals, and audience evaluations of more than a score of special reviewing organizations such as women's clubs, religious groups, and the like. The *Digest*, while only in its first volume, and published weekly, will be cumulated at convenient intervals, and finally issued either as an annual in one straight alphabet, or with an index if cumulated quarterly.

Sociological Sound Film

"Protecting the Public" is a sound film made for the Department of Justice, Bureau of Prisons, in Washington. This is a sociological study of the Industrial Reformatory at Chillicothe, Ohio, with particular emphasis on the rehabilitation of first offenders. This one-reel sound film is available in 16 mm. and may be obtained from J. V. Bennett, assistant director, Bureau of Prisons, Department of Justice, Washington, D.C.

Educational Film

The new version of the film, "Books—From Manuscript to Classroom," which dramatizes the making of a textbook, has been shown to thousands of pupils. To meet the increasing demand, new 16 mm. silent films will be added to the supply for free distribution to schools and educational institutions. All requests for booking dates should be sent to William E. Cash, The John C. Winston Company, 1010 Arch Street, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania.

Classroom Materials

"Building America," the series of illustrated classroom materials dealing with various phases of American life, is being continued this year. These materials are developed and adapted for use in the public schools. The project, which is sponsored by the Society for Curriculum Study, is coöperative and non-profit making. While the work last year was subsidized by a foundation, this year the society is calling upon educators to subscribe to the service. The society may be addressed at 425 West 23rd Street, New York City.

Map Interpretation

A valuable article on "The Influence of Specific Instruction on Map Interpretation," by Frank E. Sorenson, Syracuse, Nebraska, appeared in the November, 1936, number of *The Journal of Geography*. The study points out ways to improvement in the use of maps in developing understandings of the relationship between human interests, activities, and experiences on the one hand, and the national environmental complex on the other. While written

primarily for teachers of geography, teachers of the other social studies may profit by reading it.

University of Pennsylvania Anniversary

A Bicentennial Committee of the University of Pennsylvania, including a nation-wide representation of both alumni and non-alumni, is being formulated to carry into effect plans for the celebration of the university's two hundredth birthday in 1940. The scope of the celebration is to be commensurate with the wide service which the University of Pennsylvania has rendered during two centuries not only in the Quaker city but in the commonwealth of Pennsylvania and the nation as well. Preceding the Bicentennial Celebration, the sum of $12,500,000 will be sought to enable the university to begin its third century with an increasing ability for service.

Growth of Junior Colleges

More than 550 junior colleges, 190 of which are public institutions, are serving the youth of America in obtaining at least two years of education beyond the secondary school. Since 1918, when there were only four junior colleges in the United States, the need for additional education service has been such as to increase the number of these institutions to 554 at the present time. These junior colleges which have enrollments ranging from twenty-five to several hundred students, offer courses of instruction covering the traditional freshman and sophomore college years and are designed to meet the need of the community in which they are located including preparation for higher institutions of learning. At least a dozen of these institutions have property valuations of a million dollars or over—one being valued at more than $4,000,000. The states in which the movement has made the greatest strides are, California, Iowa, Texas, Oklahoma, Illinois, Kentucky, New York, and Missouri.

Projects for World Peace

The education committee of the Women's International League for Peace and Freedom, 1924 Chestnut Street, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, is gathering material for special assembly programs and projects emphasizing world peace and brotherhood, for distribution to schools. It urges teachers who have successfully tried such work to send suggestions to the above address.

Correspondence

Readers are invited to send in their ideas, experiences and opinions. Questions, also, will be welcome.

To the Editor:

When a state and national election such as the country has just passed through comes around the question arises as to how intelligently the average voter cast his ballot. It seems that this question is a direct challenge to the social studies teacher. Since education is accepted as a main bulwark of democracy one of its responsibilities is that of training the future voters in the process of voting and the need of making wise choices.

How may this be done? Two methods may be mentioned. First, the traditional method of memory acrobatics or in other words trying to cram the facts as they are read from the printed page of the textbook merely for the purpose of passing an inevitable test, only to forget them as soon as the test is over. A second method arises from the more recent philosophy, "a pupil learns better to do by doing."

In accord with this newer philosophy we conducted an election in our school on election day. The students in our junior-senior high school received actual practice in voting.

This project was undertaken by two social studies classes in the senior high school. The two classes, one a freshman class, the other being made up of juniors and seniors began their work on the unit some time before election day. Their aim was to study the management of an election as well as the actual process of voting. It was necessary to consult text material to find how elections were conducted and thus be able to conduct our election. In this way the motive and the procedure were arrived at.

In the meantime the school (about 200 students) was divided into two voting precincts on a basis of grades or years in school. The election board for each precinct was made up of members of one of the social studies classes studying elections. A general announcement was made to the student body concerning the election. The students were to see that they were registered as qualified voters by a certain day if they wished to vote.

When election day came voting booths had been set up and each student in the classes in charge had

his part to do. Sample ballots had been furnished by the two county party committees. The process of voting, then, was carried through as nearly like the actual voting as possible.

What values were derived from such a unit? In the first place the students learned about voting by actually voting. To them the process was as real as the official voting was to their parents down town. They learned far more about electors, the need of registration, direct legislation and all the other things that go with voting than they would have by formal study from a textbook.

In the second place they found an interesting approach to the nature of each office and the type of person that would be best fitted to fill each office. They also got a great deal more out of studying the nine initiated and referred laws in the Colorado ballot. Especially was this so in the case of the two classes participating. Finally they became to some extent critical of the present process of voting. One reaction from them was that there is much confusion caused by the presence of the electors' names for each presidential candidate on the ballot; another, that the ballot is too long, some offices should be appointive allowing the voter to study more carefully the fewer candidates that would be listed on the short ballot. There were other criticisms, favorable and unfavorable, which will not be mentioned in this paper.

Here, then is a plan to make an otherwise rather dead item to the average secondary school student a real live problem. Conducted in the right way the project stimulates a real interest. It also affords an opportunity for every student in a four- or six-year high school to get actual practice in at least one national and state election at the time the whole community is interested in voting and the subject is vital to everybody. The plan is useful not only with regard to the immediate interests of the student but may have an effective influence in promoting one ultimate service for society, namely that of making for a more enlightened and intelligent electorate which is so necessary in any democracy.

PERRY H. ELDER, *Principal*
High School
Idaho Springs, Colorado

TO THE EDITOR:

May I, through your correspondence columns, call the attention of your readers to the programs of this Committee in Guatemala and Mexico?

The Twelfth Seminar in Mexico will be held next July, and will, as usual, be led by a distinguished group of authorities on Pan American affairs, including Herbert J. Spinden, Rene d'Harnoncourt, Chester Lloyd Jones, and Charles A. Thomson, as well as by prominent Mexicans.

As a part of that Seminar there will be held the First Festival of Pan American Chamber Music, sponsored by Elizabeth Sprague Coolidge and directed by Carlos Chavez. In addition, the Committee is conducting in January and February a two weeks' Seminar in Guatemala, with a program organized along the familiar lines of the Seminar in Mexico. The Committee also announces for February a Mid-Winter Institute in Mexico, with a program of lectures, round tables, and field trips. Membership in these Seminars and Institutes is open to men and women concerned for the increase of inter-American understanding. Applications and requests for information will be welcome.

Sincerely yours,

HUBERT HERRING, *Director*
The Committee on Cultural Relations with Latin America, 289 Fourth Avenue, New York

Book Reviews and Book Notes

GENERAL

Citizenship Education through the Social Studies: a Philosophy and a Program. By Robert Wendell Frederick and Paul H. Sheats. New York: Row, Peterson and Co., 1936. Pp. viii, 312. $1.60.

The authors, who are members of the faculty of the New York State College for Teachers, attempt to give in this book "a social-studies program consistent with a stated point of view, both in respect to the general aims of education and to the special purpose of the social subjects" (p. iii). They maintain that citizenship should be taught in every grade during both the class period and extra-curricular activities—a contention with which educators in general are in hearty agreement. They define the good citizen as "a person who possesses a genuine interest in the welfare of mankind on a world-wide scale and is guided in the expression of that interest by the scientific temper within the limits of native ability" (p.

246). By "scientific" they mean "rational thought" or "the conscience of the expert" (p. 13).

After a summary account of the development of the social studies the authors discuss how "interest in the welfare of mankind" may be developed. They then discuss (1) the selection and organization of subject matter in the social studies for teaching purposes; (2) the nature of the social studies textbook and the equipment and materials suitable for teaching citizenship; (3) the education of social studies teachers; and (4) testing in the social studies. The last fifty-two pages—one-sixth of the book—are given to an appendix composed of sample tests for the social studies prepared by J. W. Wrightstone. Lists of readings taken chiefly from material published in book form are given with each chapter.

Many teachers of the social studies will dissent from much that the book contains. Among their objections will be the following: the apparent disregard of the standard subjects (pp. 73-75); the conception of the unit (pp. 85 ff.); the evident interpretation of integration as applicable only to the organization of subject matter (p. 23); the attack on the historical approach (p. 28); the use of immediate social need as the main basis for curricular selection (pp. 77, 79); the view that the units selected for study are "relatively unimportant" (p. 82); and the proposed "areas of human interest" as the bases of selection and organization (pp. 73-74, 141 ff.): On the other hand, most teachers will strongly endorse the contentions (1) that "instruction in the process of thought should form an integral part of regular classroom work" (p. 68) and (2) that "the work of the classroom should be enriched by real social experiences both in the going affairs of the community and in the life of the school" (p. 248). The main value of the book is to awaken in teachers of the social studies the importance of having a point of view, or philosophy, of teaching.

HOWARD C. HILL

University of Chicago
Chicago, Illinois

The Far Eastern Crisis. By Henry L. Stimson. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1936. Pp. 293. $2.75.

On the night of September 18, 1931, the Japanese army began its occupation of Manchuria. On February 24, 1932, the Assembly of the League of Nations adopted unanimously a report adjudging Japan responsible for the development of events since September 18, 1931, and refusing to extend recognition to the régime set up in Manchukuo. A week later Mr. Stimson's term as Secretary of State ended. Mr. Stimson tells the story of the Far Eastern Crisis as it developed during these eighteen fateful months.

Mr. Stimson's narrative includes a clear description of those important episodes in which, from the nature of the case, he could not be a personal participant; as, for example, the attack on Shanghai, and the deliberations of the Assembly. His major theme, however, is indicated in the sub-title: *Recollections and Observations.* The author recounts how the events presented themselves day by day to the State Department; how policies were weighed and why they were adopted; how negotiations were conducted; what expedients were attempted and what ends were sought; and with what attendant anxieties, fears, and hopes. The policy first adopted was designed to show that the United States was watching the situation carefully, to do nothing to embarrass the Liberal government in Japan, and to coöperate with the League without taking the lead. After the militarists had assumed control in Japan, Mr. Stimson aimed at stating to China America's continued concern for her rights, as affirmed in the Nine Power Treaty and elsewhere, to induce other powers to adopt the principle of non-recognition, and to coöperate vigorously with the League in condemning Japanese aggression. The reluctance of the British government to act, until British commercial interests were threatened, is plainly shown. A note of complacency may be detected in the fact that, whereas clear reference is made to the economic considerations affecting the British and Japanese governments, no motivation except humanitarian neighborliness is recognized as having affected American policy toward China since the inception of the Open Door Policy.

Mr. Stimson's observations and conclusions merit the attention due to the reflections of a sober, sincere, and experienced statesman. He sees the danger that China may become either an appendage to Japan or a nationalistic, militaristic, and embittered state. There is no sure means of preventing either eventuality from occurring. The United States should offer neither armed resistance to Japanese ambitions nor abandon her interest in China. All means of diplomatic support to China should be employed. Beyond this hope must be placed in a change of Japanese policy, which may result from a resurgence of liberal forces in that country, and from the recognition of the economic futility of military expansion. Mr. Stimson's views on international organization are emphatic. Without explicitly urging that the United States enter the League, he supports the policy of consultation, stresses the difficulties that arose from America's isolation from the League, and asserts that the League, even if it be only an international forum, is a "long step forward in the evolution of government" (p. 189). He considers economic sanctions not unfavorably, and declares his confidence in the ultimate establishment of international organization

for peace. The chief prerequisite to its success he believes to be the "preventive hygiene of opening trade relations" (p. 251).

This book may be warmly commended, not only to experts and teachers, but also to their pupils both in colleges and in high schools. It is lucid, vivid, and even dramatic. It will serve not only as a survey of an important episode in international affairs, but also as an illuminating picture of the conduct of diplomatic negotiations. It contains maps, useful appendices, and an index.

HERBERT J. ABRAHAM

George School
Newtown, Pennsylvania

Gone with the Wind. By Margaret Mitchell. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1936. Pp. 1037. $3.00.

There is hardly anything more helpful to a history teacher than a good historical novel. The period of Civil War and Reconstruction in American history has been made vivid by numerous good stories but none will prove more useful than this latest "best-seller."

The story is laid in central Georgia in the plantation district near Jonesboro, and in the young city of Atlanta. The author knows much history and has the knack of giving even her most interesting passages a genuine flavor based upon accurate knowledge. The story takes place during the years 1861-71 when Georgia was the scene of great events and they are faithfully woven into the story.

First, there is the life in a cotton planting area, not in the oldest cotton regions, but in a newer development. Here we have much that is new regarding the later cotton families. They are less select and settled; there is more evidence of recent possession of wealth. There is much true insight into the psychology which urged the Confederacy first into being and then into vigorous war. The second scene is war-time Atlanta. There is not much to help us in general literature when we seek knowledge of inland southern towns in the boom years of the war. The stirring descriptions of life in Atlanta from the early days of great hope and prosperity down to the last awful days of siege and surrender teach us much. We learn of the civilian's efforts to do his bit, and furthermore we have a rare picture of profiteering.

Those who read will not soon forget the desolation left in the prosperous plantation region by Sherman's campaign. The awful torture of starting over again in the midst of ruin and defeat is told here with startling realism. The strain of reconstruction, too, has many pages devoted to it. The various ways in which southerners met the fate meted out by the conquerors, the demoralization or loyalty of the Negroes, the horde of invaders—these all provide illustrations of reconstruction which are revealing. Some of the pictures of the Negro reaction and the psychology of the poor white throw new meaning into the usual history. Finally there are the faint signs of a new south arising from the ruins.

This review is designed to give brief comment on the historical value of this novel but it must not be closed without adding an assurance that whether the reader be interested in history or not, so absorbed will he become in the story that he will read it from cover to cover. To start it is to yield to its power.

ROY F. NICHOLS

University of Pennsylvania
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

Schools for a Growing Democracy. By James S. Tippett in collaboration with the Committee and the Teachers of the Parker School District, Greenville, South Carolina. New York: Ginn and Company, 1936. Pp. 352. Illustrated. $2.00.

During the past ten years, the teachers of the Parker School District in Greenville, South Carolina, have put forth a determined effort to make education answer more fully the needs of a democratic society. This book describes in detail that effort and its results. It presents an account of how modern methods of education have been adopted in a large system of not more than average competence in regard to finance, adult population, pupil intelligence, and pupil provision. School organization and management, including grounds, buildings, furniture, library, schedules, and staff duties; courses of study and procedures; and community activities that are related to school interests, are presented. The book stresses the importance of coöperative effort between pupils, parents and teachers in developing and achieving the principles of democracy.

A. C. B.

TEXTBOOKS AND OTHER TEACHING AIDS

On the Road to Civilization: A World History. By Albert Kerr Heckel and James G. Sigman. Philadelphia: The John C. Winston Company, 1936. Pp. v, 836. Illustrated. $2.40.

The authors of this textbook in world history for the senior high school recognize the need of the study of the past for an understanding of the problems of the present. In the preface they state, "The purpose of this volume is to picture for high school pupils the unbroken current of human life as it widens into the civilization of our present day. . . . It is the aim of this textbook to present the past as living and real; to show why men acted as they did and what were the results."

The themes are arranged by chapter into units.

They are well selected and give an able interpretation of the course of civilization. The text is readable and there is a great amount of factual material. Throughout the book the emphasis is placed upon the common experiences of humankind, such as inventions and discoveries, industries, systems of government, religion, daily life, ideas and ideals, protection of health, and search for beauty. The pictures, maps, and charts depict the places and peoples of the past. The aids for the teacher at the close of each chapter are suggestive of a wide range of student activity. A unique feature of the suggested activities is a list of "Illustrative Materials" for visual aids to learning and the use of projection materials. The bibliographies are well selected and up-to-date.

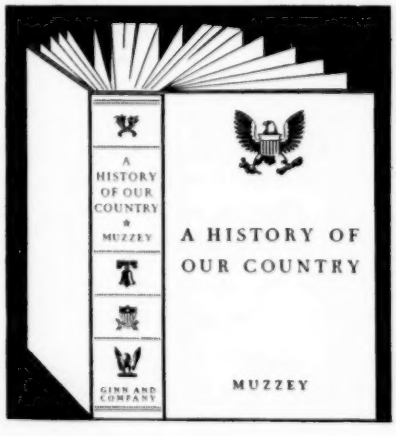
Since almost all of the school population remains in school until the end of the senior high school, many of the pupils have a low reading ability. One suspects that the vocabulary and reading mastery of the average student is rather low for an understanding of this book. It is a question whether the course in world history should be given only to the pupils of higher ability or whether the content and presentation should be adapted to the pupils of low mental age. It would seem, also, that more attention might have been given to the place of the United States in the path to civilization. The history of civilization is studied in order to give the student a more intelligent understanding of his own environment. More space, therefore, could have been given to the interrelationships between America and the rest of the world. The criticisms, however, are only a matter of opinion. In the light of the problems of presenting the history of civilization in one volume and the difficulties of selection and arrangement, the authors have produced an admirable text.

J. IRA KREIDER

Abington High School
Abington, Pennsylvania

American Democracy and Social Change. By Edward E. Walker, Walter G. Beach, and Olis G. Jamison. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1936. Pp. xxi, 689. $1.88.

The authors of *American Democracy and Social Change,* members of the faculties of San Francisco Junior College, Stanford University, and Indiana State Teachers' College, respectively, have selected significant social problems for twelfth-grade study. The book is organized into eleven units—a unit being defined as a "group of closely related problems, each one of which can be understood only in relation to the others" (p. vi). After a very general unit on the American people, the authors present units on the development of American institutions and traditions, public opinion and popular government, the Ameri-



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can standard of living, production and the general welfare, rural and urban groups and problems (two units), the constitutional system, government finance, political trends and philosophies, and international problems. Each unit is subdivided into from two to five "topics" or chapters.

In its emphasis on social change and its realistic treatment of such subjects as machine politics, the maldistribution of income, and the inadequacy of medical care, the book is progressive and courageous. Its viewpoints do not follow uncritical stereotypes; instead of assuming, for instance, that low taxes are always a good thing, the authors emphasize the returns for tax money and show that high taxes may mean wise community investment in health, education, and other social services. The pictorial charts included make effective illustrations.

The most serious defects of *American Democracy and Social Change* arise from attempts at compression. The chapter on health as a social problem is perhaps the best in the book precisely because the authors take the space to present facts, illustrations, and concrete material which make the subject vivid. By contrast the unit on the constitutional system, for example, is a skeleton without flesh and blood. Such abstract statements as the following stand without illustration: "In order to hold the three departments in proper relation to one another certain checks were set up whereby each department could checkmate the others. This feature of our government is often spoken of as the system of checks and balances" (p. 412).

With adequate supplementary references, however, particularly on political problems and institutions, this book will make a good foundation for a valuable course.

ROBERT E. KEOHANE

University High School
University of Chicago
Chicago, Illinois

A Guidebook in Civics for High Schools. By H. G. Warren and J. M. Deam. Chicago: Follett Publishing Company, 1936. Pp. 190. Illustrated. Paper covers. 54 cents.

This guidebook has been prepared for use in connection with courses in government. The organization is well done. Eight units are presented on Citizenship and Government, Local Government, State Government, National Government, Getting Money for Our Government, Political Parties and Elections, Government and Our Economic Life, America and the World. The book provides pupils with a wealth of exercises and problems, which vary in difficulty, to illustrate fundamental concepts encountered in studying government. The charts and diagrams are clear; the illustrations are to the point.

Topical Analysis of Comparative European Government. By Joseph R. Starr. Boston: Ginn and Company, 1936. Pp. iv, 145. Paper covers. $1.50.

In this students' manual, the essential facts relating to five major European governments—Great Britain, France, Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, Italy, and Germany—are presented in outline and tabular form with illustrative charts. The diagrams are excellent and the reading references are good.

How to Study. By A. M. Jordan. Boston: The Christopher Publishing House, 1936. Pp. 97. $1.25.

The importance of teaching pupils how to study cannot be overestimated in the social studies. While this little book treats study in general, it contains principles that are applicable to all subjects. The four chapters, "Why Study," "How to Study," "Reading and Note Taking," and "Studying the Various Subjects," include the basic principles on how to study. In following such a procedure study habits of the right kind can be built up.

BOOK NOTES

The story of Catherine De Medici and her children is the subject of Milton Waldman's *Biography of a Family* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1936.

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ECONOMIC HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES

By Harold Underwood Faulkner

Professor of History, Smith College

This brief survey has been found useful both as text and as collateral reading for courses in the social sciences. In the new edition two new chapters have been added covering the recent period up to the present. The bibliographies have been completely revised, and all factual data checked to bring it up to date.

To be published in February

MACMILLAN NEW YORK

Pp. xxi, 266. Illustrated. $3.00). The work is a good example of the new popular and sensational biography. The theme is a dramatic one—the Florentine mother of several rulers trying to protect her strange brood in a country torn by civil war, who were united only in hating her as a foreigner. As is usual in books of this kind, personalities and events are frequently highly colored in order to produce dramatic effect. On the whole the material is skillfully handled, although it should be emphasized that no claim is made to serious historical research.

It seems natural, perhaps, that under the economic strain of the past few years many new concepts of economic theory should arise. One of these has been presented in Charles Crawford's *Restating Economic Theory*. (Paola, Kansas: Published by the author, 1936. Pp. 128 $1.00.) This book is a statement of theory in an attempt to simplify some fundamental principles of economics for the average man. Economics is explained in the terms of labor. Labor is analyzed with components of mental effort, physical exertion and time—part of the life of man. The subject is approached from a much different angle than usual, but is presented in a clear manner.

Few teachers have the time to study legal principles and constitutional law. An excellent reference book in this field which is very readable, has recently appeared. This is Hugh Evander Willis' *Constitutional Law of the United States*. (Bloomington, Indiana: The Principia Press, 1936. Pp. viii, 1198. $10.00.) Although this work has been written primarily for lawyers, it is a work that the political scientist will find profitable. Political science, economics, sociology and history are introduced in order to give a more accurate understanding of legal principles. The Principia Press, publisher of this volume, is a company of scholars incorporated for the purpose of publishing meritorious works of learning. All profits are used for the endowment of books.

Lovers of London will welcome F. W. Tickner's *London Through the Ages* (London: Thomas Nelson and Sons, Ltd. First published, 1935. Pp. 307, Illustrated. $2.00). The story of the great city through the ages from its legendary beginnings to the present day is interestingly pictured. Dr. Tickner writes with enthusiasm and with the authority of twenty years' study of the subject. The work depicts London as in the days of the Romans, the Saxons, the Stuarts, the Victorians, and the present day. Its growth, commerce, industry, government, and social life are traced. The book is well illustrated with colored plates and photographs. It contains an index.

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PERTINENT PAMPHLETS

Hints on How to Study. Wilburt R. Walters, Director of the Middle School, Wm. Penn Charter School, Germantown, Pennsylvania. 19 pp. Westbrook Publishing Co., 5800 Mervine St., Philadelphia, Pa. 25 cents.

Directions and suggestions on the best methods of preparing lessons, improving reading, taking tests, memorizing, and using the dictionary. For student use.

World Goodwill Day Booklet. World Federation of Education Associations, 1201 Sixteenth St., Washington, D.C. 10 cents.

A booklet of practical suggestions for the observance of World Goodwill Day, May 18, 1937, in the schools.

Liberty and the Constitution. Robert T. Hill. Fort Orange Press, Albany, New York. 25 cents.

A helpful booklet on an important topic.

A Mind Cultured World. Carl Hanna. Meadon Publishing Company, Boston, Massachusetts. 25 cents.

A proposal for a new form of education in character building.

Senior Class Project in Housing. Supervision of Melville J. Boyer. Allentown High School, Allentown, Pennsylvania. 5 cents each to teachers.

The seniors in a problems of democracy course at Allentown High School coöperated in a project on housing in the school year, 1935-36. The result of the survey made in their city is recorded in this small ten-page booklet.

Young Lives in a Modern World. National Congress of Parents and Teachers, 1201 Sixteenth St. N.W., Washington, D.C. 5 cents.

A public welfare program pamphlet for junior and senior high school parent-teacher associations. This pamphlet is a revised edition of the program formerly issued under the title, "A Public Welfare Program."

The School Use of Radio. Prepared in the Federal Office of Education. Issued mimeographed by the University of Wyoming, Laramie, Wyoming. 50 cents.

Treats the use of radio for instructional purposes.

Politics and Parties. Robert T. Hill. Fort Orange Press, Albany, New York. 25 cents.

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1000 and One: The Blue Book of Non-Theatrical Films. The Educational Screen, Inc. 64 E. Lake St., Chicago, Illinois. 75 cents. For subscribers of Educational Screen, 25 cents.

The twelfth edition (1936-37) of this important booklet on non-theatrical films.

CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

Are American Teachers Free? By Howard K. Beale. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1936. Pp. xxiv, 855. $3.50.

Volume XII of the Report of the Commission on the Social Studies of the American Historical Association. An analysis of restraints upon the freedom of teaching in American schools.

Curriculum-Making in the Social Studies. By Leon C. Marshall and Rachel Marshall Goetz. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1936. Pp. xvii, 252. $1.75.

Volume XIII of the Report of the Commission on the Social Studies of the American Historical Association. A social process approach to curriculum-making.

Story of Nations. By Lester B. Rogers, Fay Adams and Walter Brown. New York: Henry Holt and Company. New Edition, 1936. Pp. ix, 703. Illustrated. $2.12.

A new edition of a world history text which first appeared in 1934.

From Then Until Now: Old World Background of Our Civilization. By John T. Greenan and H. Louise Cottrell. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1936. Pp. xix, 421. Illustrated. $1.36.

A textbook presenting the elementary history of European history for the sixth grade or for the first year of junior high school.

The Elements of English Constitutional History from the Earliest Times. New Edition. By F. C. Montague. London and New York: Longmans, Green and Company, 1936. Pp. xiv, 270. $2.40.

A new edition in which the text has been revised and a new chapter on constitutional changes since 1901 added.

The Teacher and School Organization. By Leo M. Chamberlain. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1936. Pp. xxviii, 656.

The scope and character of the American public school system; its organization and the administra-

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tive units and agencies through which it is managed; and the administrative tasks in which the classroom teacher may be expected to participate.

Our American Citizenship. By Claude B. Moore. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1936. Pp. xv, 495. Illustrated. $1.40.

A textbook in American citizenship designed to meet the needs of the modern social studies program for the ninth year in Civics, Economic Citizenship, Community Civics or similar courses.

Growth of the American People. By Marcus Wilson Jernegan, Harry Ellsworth Carlson and A. Clayton Ross. New York: Longmans, Green and Company. Revised edition, 1936. Pp. xviii, 862, lx. Illustrated. $1.96.

A second edition of *The Growth of the American People* in which some important changes have been made.

An Introduction to Economic Problems. By Harold F. Clark. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1936. Pp. xv, 271. $1.75.

An introduction to our economic problems designed especially for teachers and other students of education, who are not equipped with a technical knowledge of economics. Also of value to adult groups and adult classes.

Our Natural Resources and Their Conservation. By A. E. Parkins and J. R. Whitaker, Editors. New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1936. Pp. xii, 650. Illustrated. $4.00.

A study of the various aspects of conservation by twenty-two specialists.

Waste: The Fight to Save America. By David Cushman Coyle. Indianapolis: The Bobbs-Merrill Company, 1936. Pp. 96. 50 cents.

The various aspects of national waste.

The Consulate and the Empire, 1809-1815. By Louis Madelin. Translated from the French by E. F. Buckley. Vol. II. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1936. Pp. 488. $5.00.

A volume in The National History of France series, edited by Fr. Funck-Brentano.

Jay Cooke: Private Banker. By Henrietta M. Larson. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press, 1936. Pp. xvii, 512. $5.00.

A serious study, entailing much research, of the Civil War financier.

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